

Vilnius University  
Faculty of Communication  
Student of International Communication

LUISA DELLA PIETRA

The Public Diplomacy of Open Government: OG Activities as Tools of Public  
Diplomacy to Improve Country Reputation

Supervisor: Prof. Dalia Bankauskaitė

Vilnius, 2020

Cover letter for Master Thesis

Fills the Author of Master thesis

Luisa Della Pietra

Atviros vyriausybės viešoji diplomatija: atviros vyriausybės veikla kaip viešosios diplomatijos priemonės gerinant šalies reputaciją

The Public Diplomacy of Open Government: OG Activities as Tools of Public Diplomacy to Improve Country Reputation

I guarantee that my thesis is prepared independently, without any violation of the copyrights of other persons. Any part of this master thesis have been used at other institutions of higher education.



(Signature of Author of Master thesis)

*Fills the supervisor of master thesis*

I, \_\_\_\_\_ this master thesis for  
defence. (authorise / not authorise )

\_\_\_\_\_  
(date)(signature of master thesis supervisor)

# **The Public Diplomacy of Open Government: OG activities as tools of public diplomacy to improve country reputation**

## **SUMMARY**

**Author: Luisa Della Pietra**

The aim of this dissertation is to explore the potential relationship between open government and public diplomacy, identifying the latter as an active tool of the first. As open government activities are implemented more and more by governments and administrations at all levels around the world, it is important for public servants and policy makers to recognize the effects that those initiatives may have for image-building strategies in the international arena. Moreover, as public diplomacy scholars acknowledge the erosion between foreign and domestic publics and take into account new forms of defining soft power, the values signalled by open government activities become impossible to ignore, especially when promoted through institutionalized multinational platforms.

After examining the history and research of the two main concepts, this study focuses on formulating a theoretical framework for the assessment of open government activities in their public diplomacy sense. It does so by first critically evaluating literature review of relevant frameworks and taxonomies for both concepts. Second, findings of a Delphi study research are integrated with the identified models, enriching them with data coming from the specific insight of open government's experts, and a unifying framework is proposed. Finally the newly developed framework is employed in two case-study analysis of open government activities implemented in Canada and South Korea. The specific context of these activities is analysed, keeping into account each country's international reputation and public diplomacy strategy.

The study concludes that while open government activities have indeed a public diplomacy value, this is often not fully recognized by governments, resulting in missed opportunities for image and reputation building. On the other hand, some governments and administrations are found to be very aware of this positive reputational effect, and might even have started to exploit it to their advantage. Finally, scholars and practitioners of both open government and public diplomacy are invited to build on the findings of this research, particularly with more empirically-based approaches, in order to truly grasp the fundamental shift caused by governments' employment of innovative information and communication technologies and its effects on national and international publics.

# TABLE OF CONTENTENS

<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b> .....	1
<b>INTRODUCTION</b> .....	2
<b>I. LITERATURE REVIEW OF OPEN GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC DIPLOMACY</b> .....	4
<b>1.1 Open government: history, definition and research</b> .....	4
<i>1.1.1 A brief history of open government</i> .....	4
<i>1.1.2 Defining open government</i> .....	5
<i>1.1.3 Researching open government</i> .....	7
<b>1.2 Public diplomacy: history, definition and conceptualization</b> .....	9
<i>1.2.1 A brief history of public diplomacy</i> .....	9
<i>1.2.2 Defining public diplomacy</i> .....	12
<i>1.2.3 Approaches to and types of public diplomacy</i> .....	13
<b>1.3 Open government in a context of public diplomacy</b> .....	15
<b>II. METHODOLOGY</b> .....	17
<b>2.1 Defining aims and objectives</b> .....	17
<b>2.2 Research design and methods</b> .....	18
<i>2.2.1 Critical literature review</i> .....	18
<i>2.2.2 Delphi study</i> .....	19
<i>2.2.3 Case study</i> .....	20
<b>2.3 Analysis of results</b> .....	20
<b>2.4 Sampling and data collection</b> .....	22
<i>2.4.1 Delphi study</i> .....	22
<i>2.4.2 Case study</i> .....	23
<b>III. RESEARCH RESULTS</b> .....	25
<b>3.1 Critical literature review</b> .....	25
<i>3.1.1 Open government taxonomy</i> .....	25
<i>3.1.2 Public diplomacy framework</i> .....	29
<b>3.2 Delphi Study</b> .....	35
<b>3.3 Framework for open government activities as tool of public diplomacy</b> .....	37
<b>3.4 Case study analysis</b> .....	40
<i>3.4.1 Canada and the Open Policy Model</i> .....	40
<i>3.4.2 South Korea and the Information Network Village Project</i> .....	41
<b>IV. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS</b> .....	44
<b>BIBLIOGRAPHY</b> .....	46
<b>APPENDIXES</b> .....	52
<b>APPENDIX 1 – DELPHI STUDY</b> .....	52
<b>APPENDIX 2 – CASE STUDY</b> .....	59

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 - Three pillars of open government.....	6
Figure 2 – Comparison between Old Public Diplomacy and New Public Diplomacy.....	11
Figure 3 - Multidisciplinary contributions to public diplomacy.....	14
Figure 4 - Overview of the research project.....	21
Figure 5 - Taxonomy of OGS proposed by European Commission (2016).....	26
Figure 6 - Taxonomy of open government activities.....	27
Figure 7 - Taxonomy of public diplomacy.....	32
Figure 8 - Framework for analysis of public diplomacy activities.....	33
Figure 9 - Framework for a public diplomacy approach to open government initiatives.....	34
Figure 10 - Salient results from Delphi study.....	37
Figure 11 - Framework for the assessment of open government activities as tool of public diplomacy.....	39
Figure 12 – Applied framework: Open Policy Model Canada.....	41
Figure 13 – Applied framework: INVIL Project South Korea.....	42

## INTRODUCTION

Open government is a multifaced, social and political concept, characterized by its final aim to increase levels of transparency, collaboration and participation in a society where citizens are integrated in the decision-making processes of governments and administrations, through the application of modern information and communication technologies (Wirtz & Birkmeyer, 2015). Open government initiatives are increasingly adopted by governments at local, national and multi-national levels and they are being integrated in an international system through the work of multilateral international organizations (Criado et al., 2018). The growing number of academics and practitioners who mention these activities is also a proof of their growing importance (Ruvalcaba-Gomez et al., 2018). Open government initiatives have for the most part been addressed from an internal perspective, with scholars and practitioners wanting to investigate the public value that they can provide to citizens and public administrations.

Conversely, the discipline of public diplomacy has concentrated its efforts in the evaluation of its external value, particularly its effects on foreign publics (Cull, 2009). Public diplomacy has evolved substantially in the past few decades, adapting to new ways of building and exercising influence. Scholars of public diplomacy are constantly trying to keep up with the way new forms and arenas of international relations change the ways in which countries interact with each others (Gilboa, 2001). As a result, new disciplines that exists at the intersection of public relations, public diplomacy, international relations and marketing are gaining more and more importance (Szondi, 2008). Moreover, with the line between national and foreign publics blurring, public diplomacy needs to keep up with the increasing number of ways in which international reputation and soft power are being influenced both directly and indirectly by internal policies.

This dissertation wants to approach open government initiatives from a new perspective, suggesting that these initiatives can be implemented by countries as tools of public diplomacy to improve their image in the international sphere. The aim of this research is therefore to introduce an external approach to the assessment of open government activities in their public diplomacy sense. The research will focus on the overlap between the values signalled by the adoption of open government activities, the ways they are promoted among foreign publics through national means or international organizations, and the ultimate impact that these have on national image and reputation building. In doing so, it will introduce a new research area for scholars and practitioners in the fields of open government and public diplomacy.

This aim is broken down into three achievable objectives, formulated in distinct research questions:

- R1. What are open government activities as tools of public diplomacy?

The objective of this question is to detect and analyse characteristics of this newly identified dimension of OG activities.

- R2. Why are open government activities effective tools of public diplomacy?

The objective here is to identify more precisely the effects of a successful integration of OG activities as public diplomacy instruments.

- R3. How do countries implement open government activities as tools of public diplomacy?

The final objective is to analyse main characteristics of different countries' implementation of OG activities as part of their own public diplomacy strategies.

These objectives are together the building blocks for a first theoretical framework of the public diplomacy dimension of open government.

The methodological choices made to answer each research objective are dictated by the specific objectives, which are, however, deeply intertwined. For this reason, the research part of this dissertation has been formulated by integrating three research methods. First, a critical literature review of both public diplomacy and open government literature has been carried out to identify fundamental characteristics of activities of both kind. Second, a Delphi study was concluded with a group of open government experts, so to integrate their expertise and gain insights on the actual workings of OG activities for international image building. Results from these two steps are integrated in a comprehensive framework for assessment. Lastly, the framework is tested on a case study analysis of two OG activities implemented the governments of Canada and South Korea, analysed in for their public diplomacy value.

The paper is divided in three main chapters and a conclusion. In the first chapter, the fundamental concepts of open government and public diplomacy will be thoroughly presented in their historical and contemporary sense, and as subject of academic research. The second chapter will explain in details the purpose of the study, aims and objectives, and will present each methodological choice employed to answer the research questions. The third chapter will follow the methodological order, simultaneously presenting and analysing relevant results from each research step. This decision was made because results from one methodological part have an impact on the next, and should be presented linearly. Finally, conclusions are drawn on interesting points that came up during the study and next step for future research.

# I. LITERATURE REVIEW OF OPEN GOVERNMENT AND PUBLIC DIPLOMACY

## 1.1 Open government: history, definition and research

The work on open government (OG) is not a monolithic entity. Scholars and practitioners who have applied open government principles to their research vary in their interpretations, interests, approaches and applications. Today there are entire government branches, task forces, operational units, advocacy groups, and even international organizations dedicated to the development of open government tools, and the intensity of the academic interest on the topic is growing exponentially by the year.

### *1.1.1 A brief history of open government*

The fundamental concepts of open government are not new. The idea that governments should strive to guarantee accessibility (Cross, 1953), transparency of information (Dahl, 1971), and citizen participation (Della Porta, 2013) is something that has been widely discussed by scholars throughout the history of democracy.

The specific attributes that characterize today's conceptualization of open government are, however, much more modern. The evolution of the digital age and the implementation of information and communication technologies (ICTs) in the public sector has forever altered the relationship between citizens and their government (Lee and Kwak, 2012). This gave birth to the digital government, or e-government (Bekkers and Hornsborg, 2005). At the beginning, governments introduced technology-based innovations only to improve the quality and efficiency of their services (Chun et al. 2010). Examples of these early web-based interactions go from the basic digitalization of government information, to finally providing online transaction services to citizens, businesses and other stakeholder. Chun et al. (2010) refer to this type of e-government as Government 1.0.

In the early 2000s it was clear that the pace of the digital revolution would only scale up, with innovations and technology being buzzwords in all areas of social interest, including the public administration sector. By switching from a government-oriented to a citizen-oriented paradigm, most governments started progressing towards Government 2.0 (Chun et al. 2010). With Government 2.0 the digital relationship between government and stakeholders is no longer unilateral. Citizen participation is expected and ideally supported by technology, backed up with open information sharing in pursue of more radical cooperation (O'Reilly, 2011). It is in this context that a more delineated idea of open government started to form.

More specifically, the contemporary understanding of open government is traced back to the "Memorandum for Transparency and Open Government", adopted by the Obama administration in



March 2009 (Wirtz & Birkmeyer, 2015). With the United States of America as its strongest international advocate, the open government movement was catapulted into a new phase, one that positioned the topic at the forefront of international interest of scholars, civil servants and representatives alike, and that cemented its position in the agenda of modern public administrations around the world (Lee & Kwak, 2012).

The international community, initially guided by the US and a handful of other nations, quickly organized around the idea that every body can benefit from the application of principles of open knowledge, experience sharing and community buildings, even governments themselves. Thus, they came together under the Open Government Partnership (OGP), a multilateral international organization funded in 2011 (Ruvalcaba-Gomez et al. 2018) with the goal to promote, support, and evaluate open government initiatives adopted by member states. Today, more than 75 countries concretely commit every year to promote open government through the institutionalized system of the OGP.

### *1.1.2 Defining open government*

Political leaders have included references to the concept of open government for decades, often with a strong focus on the immediate act of disclosing information for public scrutiny. The academic discourse has recently broadened the scope of its definition, starting from the three pillars identified by President Obama during his 2009 Memorandum – transparency, public participation, and collaboration (White House, 2009).

Despite the vast number of definitions given to the concept, there is a general understanding that open government initiatives rely on a close partnership between citizens, government and civil society to make decision-making processes and outcomes more transparent, participatory and collaborative (Ruvalcaba-Gomez et al., 2018; Wirtz and Birkmeyer, 2015; Lathrop and Ruma, 2010; McDermott, 2010).

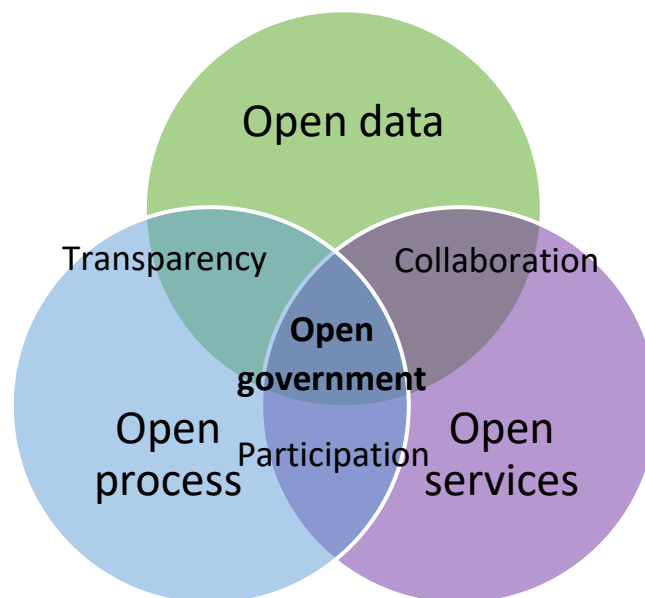
It is also quite clear that the development of this relationship is strongly linked to the implementation of ICTs in the public sector (Gil-Garcia et al., 2017; Meijer et al., 2012; Novek, 2009). The nature, scope, and field of application of any OG activity or provision can widely differ, thus providing governments with a tool that is multi-purpose in nature, both easy to adapt and to adopt (Criado et al., 2018; Ruvalcaba-Gomez et al., 2018). A definition that takes away from these generally accepted characteristics is the one suggested by Wirtz & Birkmeyer (2015):

“Open government is a multilateral, political, and social process, which includes in particular transparent, collaborative, and participatory action by government and administration. To meet these conditions, citizens and social groups should be integrated into political processes with the support of modern information and communication

technologies, which together should improve the effectiveness and efficiency of governmental and administrative action.” (Wirtz & Birkmeyer, 2015, p.384).

In other words, open government is a hybrid concept, exceptionally flexible and multifaced, characterized by its final aim to increase levels of transparency, collaboration and participation in a society where citizens are integrated in the decision-making processes, through the application of newly developed information and communication technologies (Lathrop and Ruma, 2010).

The advent of the Internet, and particularly of Web 2.0, into the public sector acted as a disruptive innovation in the field. Open data, open decision-making processes and open services are the newly enhanced toolsets that focus on the creation of added value for transparency, collaboration and participation. The concept of open government can be visualized at the intersection of all three dimensions and instruments (Figure 1).



*Figure 1 - Three pillars of open government  
Adapted from Tallan (2012)*

Definitions of OG may vary and include more or less than these three pillars. This is due, mostly, to the specific approaches adopted by the authors and their interest in open government. Ruvalcaba-Gomez et al. (2018), for example, go beyond transparency, collaboration and participation and include in their definition the concepts of democratic values, technological innovation, and access to information. Meijer et al. (2012), on the other hand, limit their definition to the concepts of transparency – intended as open access to government information – and participation – intended as open access to decision-making arenas. One thing is certain, the multi-disciplinary character of open government is indeed one of its defining attributes.

### *1.1.3 Researching open government*

As part of a growing, multi-disciplinary research domain, open government scholars have been producing a vast body of work on the topic, in both empirical and conceptual terms, which is far from easy to summarize. A number of these studies focus on trying to present a comprehensive overlook, grouping information on the most prominent concepts and most analysed topics in the entire open government literature.

Criado et al. (2018), for example, have carried out a meta-analysis of the academic literature on OG from 2011 until 2015. Their work looks for the methods usually adopted in open government research, the geographic areas and fields of study where the researchers are from, and the concepts and key words that are most prominent in their publications. A notable conclusion derived from the study is that OG literature mostly comes from research with a public administration angle and is disproportionately carried out in the United States. However, countries such as the UK, The Netherlands, Mexico, Europe, Italy, Germany, Spain, Australia, Sweden and China are showing an increasing amount of interest in open government research as well. Similar results were also confirmed by Ruvalcaba-Gomez et al. (2018) and Meijer et al. (2012), who however recognize also political and legal sciences as major academic disciplines where OG research is developed.

Moreover, from multiple analysis of aggregated literature (Criado et al., 2018; Chatwin and Arku, 2017; Wirtz and Birkmeyer, 2015; Meijer et al., 2012;), it appears to be a stronger interest in open government activities that promote the pillars of transparency and participation, or a combination of the three pillars – transparency, participation and cooperation – while there is a distinct lack of research focusing solely on the third pillar. This is not surprising, as similar results have been found in other studies (Ruvalcaba-Gomez et al., 2018; Wirtz and Birkmeyer, 2015; Meijer et al., 2012) and it is consistent with a view that considers collaboration a direct results of transparency and participation (Meijer et al., 2012). Notably, Chatwin and Arku (2017) also identify accountability as a “fourth” pillar among the integral components of any OG activity.

Finally, a research of the literature on open government has resulted in the identification of different key words, most of which can be connected to concept of innovation and ICTs (Criado at al. 2018; Ruvalcaba-Gomez et al., 2018; Chatwin and Arku, 2017; Wirtz and Birkmeyer, 2015; Lathrop and Ruma, 2010).

For what regards a cross-national approach in the open government literature, there is a substantial efforts from a number of researchers to compare OG activities or strategies between different countries (Rujer et al., 2020; Schnell and Jo, 2019; O’Connor et al., 2019). The research questions

motivating these studies are usually focused on gaining practical knowledge and insights into the development or effectiveness of the adopted measures.

A common starting point to evaluate approaches to open government activities by different countries is using the Open Government Partnership (OGP) eligibility criteria (budget transparency, ATI, asset disclosure, and civil liberties). Schnell and Jo (2019) use the OGP eligibility criteria as a starting point to evaluate the level of openness of different countries. Their research implements quantitative analysis of data coming from OGP dataset – which includes 121 countries – and compare it to the 2018 Quality of Government (QoG) dataset, in order to research why certain countries are more open than others (Schnell and Jo, 2019). This type of research confirms that data coming from the OGP is a reliable source of comparison between countries in the field of open government activities implementation and levels.

Building on different sources of data, there have been some attempts to create models that comprehensively assess the levels of openness of national or local government. One of the most cited mode in the literature is the Lee and Kwak (2012) Open Government Maturity Model. The OGMM is particularly developed to evaluate and support the implementation of open government initiatives that employ social media to increase public engagement (Lee and Kwak, 2012). The five levels the authors identify – *initial conditions*, *data transparency*, *open participation*, *open collaboration*, and *ubiquitous engagement* – can however serve as an assessment tool for other type of OG initiatives as well.

Another reliable source of data in this sense is the OECD website, where an extensive body of work can be easily accessed on open government activities of multiple countries. O’Connor et al. (2019) implement a framework that builds precisely on this work to evaluate the success of open government policies in authoritarian countries. Their research also implicitly suggests that authoritative regimes like Kazakhstan implement OG activities mostly to gain international favor (O’Connor et al., 2019), however they do not provide any clear empirical proof in support of this claim.

Finally, contemporary scholars seem to be more interested than ever to focus their research on the implementation and effectiveness, in the short and long term, of open government (eg. Puron-Cid, 2014; Geekiyanage et al., 2020; Huang et al., 2020). This shift towards more empirical-focused research was long overdue to clearly evaluate the actual impact – or lack thereof – of policy changes.

## **1.2 Public diplomacy: history, definition and conceptualization**

The first recorded use of the term “public diplomacy” was in 1965. It expressed, in the context of political science, “the process by which international actors seek to accomplish the goals of their foreign policy by engaging with foreign publics” (Cull, 2008, p.32). The practices here described are in strike contrast to what was then the familiar idea of diplomacy – nothing like the popular image of secret meetings with foreign representatives behind closed doors, the bureaucratic machine operating while shielded from public scrutiny. The picture that emerges from the literature, however, is that of a variegated practice, much older than the ‘60s, and still evolving in a technology-driven age.

### *1.2.1 A brief history of public diplomacy*

Public diplomacy is arguably as old as diplomacy itself (Melissen, 2005). Even in ancient times, rulers were always preoccupied to a certain degree of maintaining good reputation in foreign lands and engaged with foreign publics in order to safeguard their position. This happened as much in ancient Greece as in the Roman Empire, in Byzantium as in the “Most Serene Republic” of Venice (Melissen, 2005). With the invention of the printing press, the public diplomacy of the Renaissance was scaled up. Notable examples of early modern European public diplomacy are the Dutch Republic (Helmets, 2016) and the reign of Louis XIV, who was responsible for one of the first and most successful large-scale efforts of nation branding (Olins, 2002).

During World War II, new broadcasting instruments such as the radio were implemented by Nazi Germany to perfect the practice of propaganda (Nye, 2008). It became quickly clear that foreign policy alone was not enough to fight against such powerfully persuasive strategies. The American government swiftly realized that its international reputation was paramount for its survival and began an intensive program to broadcast American culture in Latin America. Not much later, Hollywood too became part of the US propaganda machine (Nye, 2008).

Notwithstanding other great examples such as Ataturk’s Turkey, it was only during the Cold War period that public diplomacy reached the levels of sophistication and intentionality that are usually associated with it. The conscious efforts of the United States, of the former USSR, and even of European countries to influence international audiences heavily relied on “informal” diplomacy and persuasion tactics (Melissen, 2005; Helmets, 2016). The world-wide propaganda employed by the superpowers during the Cold War still provides some of the greatest examples of public diplomacy in modern history (Napoli and Fejeran, 2004).

The fall of the Berlin Wall was a turning point in the history of public diplomacy. International relations started to be characterized by a more liberal paradigm, calling for a pluralistic form of collaboration among influential actors. The discipline apparently lost its relevance in the post-Cold

War world (Szondi, 2008), but this fundamental shift actually meant that public diplomacy had to change and adapt to a new way of building transnational relations.

Many authors concentrated their attention on the efforts of the United States to engage with the Arab and Islamic worlds after 9/11 (e.g. Napoli and Fejeran, 2004; Hoffman, 2002; Smyth, 2001). The terrorist attack against the US forced the superpower to interrogate the way it was perceived in other countries and led to a large-scale PR campaign to re-brand the nation and re-center public diplomacy in the US foreign policy agenda (Napoli and Fejeran, 2004). Scholars like Gilboa (2008) criticize the hyper-focus on American public diplomacy efforts and call for more inclusive and, most importantly, contemporary takes on the topic.

Gilboa (2001; 2008) points out how three revolutions have influenced the context where public diplomacy acts. First, the digital revolution created the Internet and global news network, making information immediately available globally. Second, political revolutions have increased the amount of people invested in democracy. Finally, an international relations revolution has made reputation and image among the most powerful foreign policy tool for a country (Giboa, 2008, p.56).

The changes in the way that international actors interact with foreign publics and with each others has pushed towards the adoption of a new public diplomacy paradigm, the “new public diplomacy” (Cull, 2009; Melissen, 2005). What is often referred to as new public diplomacy is fundamentally different from the old – or traditional – public diplomacy in many ways. Cull (2009) summarizes these main differences in a list of seven key features (Figure 2).

First, contemporary public diplomacy is no longer a prerogative of countries at all. Non-state actors, such as NGOs, civil society, corporations and individual can and do pursue public diplomacy goals (Leonard, 2002), in addition to be formidable allies in many public diplomacy activities implemented by national governments.

Second, ICTs are constantly creating new opportunities to exercise international influence (Gilboa, 2001). This type of real-time media public diplomacy has been so disruptive in the field of international relations that academics have started to build new models of diplomacy that take into account precisely the different ways in which mass communication are incorporated in the actors’ strategies (Gilboa, 2001). The unprecedented development of ICTs is a direct contributor of the erosion between national and international sphere. With the distinction between foreign and domestic publics eroding, public diplomacy can now communicate to a truly global community, both online and offline (Bjola et al., 2019).

Moreover, new public diplomacy has almost completely abandoned old notions of propaganda that characterized it during the Cold War period. Modern public diplomacy is growingly approached from other fields of social scientific research, human behavior and, in particular, public relation and marketing (Wang, 2006). As a consequence, the terminology used by public diplomacy practitioners and scholars has changed to include more and more concepts of *national branding* and *soft power* (Cull, 2009).

<b>Dominant Characteristics</b>	<b>Old PD</b>	<b>New PD</b>
1) Identity of international actor	State	State and non-state
2) Tech. environment	Short wave radio Print newspapers Land-line telephones	Satellite, Internet, real-time news Mobile telephones
3) Media environment	Clear line between domestic and international news sphere	Blurring of domestic and international news sphere.
4) Source of approach	Outgrowth of political advocacy & propaganda theory	Outgrowth of corporate branding & network theory
5) Terminology	“International image” “Prestige”	“Soft power” “Nation Brand”
6) Structure of role	Top down, actor to foreign peoples	Horizontal, facilitated by actor
7) Nature of role	Targeted messaging	Relationship-building
8) Overall aim	<b>The management of the international environment</b>	<b>The management of the international environment</b>

Figure 2 – Comparison between Old Public Diplomacy and New Public Diplomacy  
Source: Cull (2009)

One of the most significant differences between old and new public diplomacy is the shift from a top-down communication towards a more horizontal communication. In the first case the international actor – almost exclusively the government – would focus on communicating *to* the foreign public in a direct and often unilateral way. New public diplomacy, on the other hand, is characterized by people-to-people diplomacy and the interaction between the international actor *and* foreign public. In this way, the focus of any new public diplomacy activity becomes relations building, not limited to the targeted foreign audience but also to other actors, third party publics and more (Cull, 2009).

The final aim of both old and new public diplomacy, which Cull describes as “an international actor’s attempt to manage the international environment through engagement with a foreign public” (2009, p.12), remains consistent. This definition takes into account the fact that both the international

actor and the nature of the contact with the public opinion can take multiple shapes under the public diplomacy umbrella.

Finally, in a globalized world it is important to keep in mind that public opinion is not just a passive receiver of information. Actors that want to engage digitalized, global publics have to adapt to the fundamental differences that the post-modern age is imposing on public diplomacy. It would be reckless, for example, not to take into account the speed at which information spreads online, the overwhelming power of social media to influence public opinion, the erosion of trust between citizens and their government, and the global demand for greater accountability and transparency (Potter, 2002). Each of these issues plays an important role in shaping contemporary public diplomacy.

### *1.2.2 Defining public diplomacy*

Public diplomacy has never been easy to define. Numerous classic definitions of public diplomacy rely on the final aim of such practices. In fact, it was often defined as government efforts to communicate with foreign publics in order to influence their opinion and attitudes towards, serving strategic foreign policy goals (Malone, 1985, Frederick, 1993). While this kind of definition stands correct, it has become somewhat restrictive and more recent definitions go beyond the ultimate goal approach.

In modern definitions, public diplomacy is recognized to be performed not only by national governments, but also non-state actors (Gilboa, 2008; Melissen, 2005; Potter, 2002). The role of ICTs is recognized as fundamental in pursuing the aim of influencing foreign public opinion (Gilboa, 2001). Moreover, modern definitions have almost completely abandoned the idea that the attempt of influencing foreign public is initiated with the hope that they, in turn, pressure their own governments to change foreign policies (Szondi, 2008).

Some authors even claim that contemporary public diplomacy is no longer relegated to foreign publics. Szondi (2008) mentions two ways in which public diplomacy can also be aimed at domestic publics. One is through public engagement of citizens to develop foreign policies, the other is through the explanation of foreign policy goals to domestic audiences. These kind of domestically-aimed public diplomacy wants to gain domestic support for foreign policy decisions by increasing transparency levels and perceived accountability.

Public diplomacy is a discipline that interlocks with many others academic fields, with recognized contributions from the fields of public relations (PR) (Signitzer and Coombs, 1992), branding, cultural studies, sociology and others (Gilboa, 2008). International relations is deeply connected to public diplomacy, as it lays out the fundamental aspect of it: the relationship with *foreign* publics. Power is a critical subject in international relations, often intended as the ability to affect others to



achieve the outcomes one wants (Nye; 1990, p.154). Since the end of the Cold War the change in nature of international relations has introduced additional forms of power, such as culture, ideology, image and institutions (Nye, 1990).

While hard power relates to population size, territory, military, economic strength, and in general the ability to influence through coercive actions, soft power relies on the ability to influence through intangible assets (Nye, 2008). In this context, public diplomacy becomes a powerful instrument of soft power, as it is employed in order to increase the attractiveness of a country's culture, political values, institutions and legitimation across international publics (Nye, 2008).

### *1.2.3 Approaches to and types of public diplomacy*

There is a vast variety of approaches to public diplomacy, thus creating a variegated literature on the topic. To make a little bit more sense of the different typologies of public diplomacy that have been conceptualized following these approaches, one way is to group the literature into five general thematic areas. Four of these follow a categorization identified by Wang (2006), with an additional one identified for its relevance to the purpose of this research.

Wang (2006) groups public diplomacy literature into four streams of research: *mass media and public diplomacy*, *public diplomacy and its interaction with other disciplines*, *historical perspectives of public diplomacy*, and *public diplomacy strategy and management* (Wang, 2006, p.93). The additional approach to highlight is *public diplomacy and national reputation management*.

The first research stream, *public diplomacy and mass media*, refers to a number of studies conducted on the relation between public diplomacy and instruments of mass communication. Studies that take this approach are interested in the way diplomatic processes and activities are influenced especially by the new development of ICTs. According to Gilboa (2001) the influence of mass media has been so disruptive in the field of diplomacy that new conceptual models are needed in the discipline to account for them: *public diplomacy*, *media diplomacy*, and *media-broker diplomacy*. In particular, the public diplomacy model proposed in relation to the role of the use of media presents three different variants: the *basic variant*, in which media is used as part of a strategy to influence public opinion in a hostile country; the *nonstate transnational variant*, in which other non-government actors can influence directly or indirectly foreign publics with the implementation of mass media channels; and the *domestic public relations variant*, in which governments externalize public diplomacy activities to PR agencies and lobbyist.

The second category refers to how *public diplomacy interacts with adjacent disciplines* (Figure 3). Multiple studies have in fact linked public diplomacy to several relevant disciplines, like sociology, psychology, anthropology, communication and, most significantly, PR (Yun, 2006; Signitzer and Coombs, 1992), political science (Grunig, 1993), and international relations (Nye, 2008). Despite the majority of these being mostly descriptive and evaluative in nature, Gilboa (2008) notices how the discipline is still lacking a comprehensive theoretical framework.

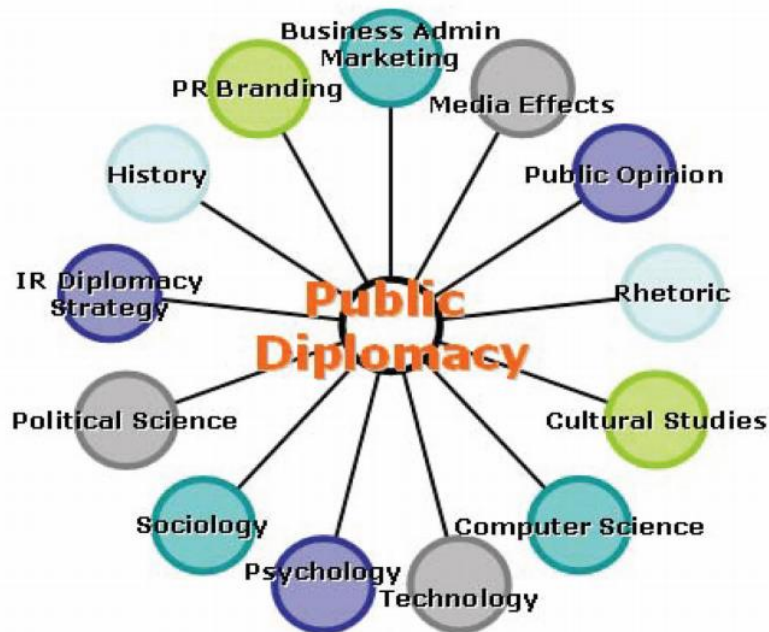


Figure 3 - Multidisciplinary contributions to public diplomacy  
Source: Gilboa 2008

The third stream of research refers to *historical perspectives of public diplomacy*. Most of the studies in this category dissect the type of public diplomacy activity that has characterized the Cold War period. More generally speaking, are part of this grouping all those case studies analysis that want to provide an explorative outlook on public diplomacy strategies employed in specific historical, cultural or geographical contexts. In the literature of public diplomacy, case studies can be found on a majority of public diplomacy activities from all countries, in all historic periods, making it one of the most popular methodological instrument in the field.

The last research category identified by Wang (2006) is *public diplomacy strategy and management*. In this category are included all the studies, especially from think tanks and PR agencies, aimed at identifying strengths and weaknesses in the way public diplomacy strategies are carried out, in order to increase their effectiveness. The main takeaway from this kind of research is that contemporary public diplomacy has adopted a strong focus on relationship building through the promotion of ideas and values.

The additional stream of research refers to the relation between *public diplomacy and national reputation management*. National reputation management is a concept that is often approached in the literature from a nation branding perspective. While that is indeed true, it is not the case in this instance, as nation branding is considered a discipline in its own right, strictly connected to public diplomacy but independent from it (Szondi, 2008). However, there is a number of public diplomacy studies that recognize the importance of nation reputation management for its value in international interactions and relationship building. International public opinion has a direct effect on the legitimation of a nation or its specific policies to the global arena (Tucker and Handrickson, 2004). National reputation has been seen to influence the ability of a country to build international relations and coalitions, thus effecting its ability to pursue foreign policy goals, to attract foreign investments, build or strengthened international trade relations, or increase in-bound tourism (Wang, 2006). Even if public diplomacy is not singlehandedly able to influence the reputation of a nation, it can definitely play a role in shaping foreign public opinion through strategic activities targeted at influential audiences.

### **1.3 Open government in a context of public diplomacy**

There is not a lot of literature available on the issue of open government in a public diplomacy context. The relationship between these two concepts has been rarely mentioned, suggesting some conceptual links but never investigating the matter rigorously.

It has been mentioned previously how open government is a direct result of the Government 2.0, which in turn results from the application of Web 2.0 technology to public administration. Some scholars have noticed a similar pattern in public diplomacy, to the point that some refer to the contemporary approaches as Public Diplomacy 2.0 (Khatib et al., 2012; Dale, 2009) because of their heavy reliance on digital instruments, particularly social media (Armstrong, 2009). In this context, some authors have referred to open government strategies as part of a wider effort to upgrade public diplomacy to the new requirements of the digital age (Dale, 2009).

Open government initiatives are not just employed by democratic countries. A small but increasing number of scholars is paying attention to how authoritarian regimes around the world are also invested in transparent, e-governance practices (e.g.; Van Long et al., 2017; Kalathil and Boas, 2003). In these cases, e-government and e-democracy do not necessarily go hand in hand and observers of these countries have concentrated on domestic motivations for implementing e-governance, such as democratic aspirations. This is only a partial explanation and needs to be integrated by external motivations, such as technological development and economic globalization (Åström et al., 2012). In other words, the reasons why countries employ open government activities are not completely

internal, not only destined to domestic publics. The research in this area is, however, still ongoing and most of these claims remain open to further investigation.

It has been suggested that open government initiatives in authoritarian regimes might also be implemented to gain international favour (O'Connor et al., 2019). In this context, the role of a country's reputation becomes central. The practice of trying to influence the international image of a country by managing its reputation, identity or attributes is referred to as nation branding (Gudjonsson, 2005). Nation branding is therefore part of a nation's soft power and can thus be an instrument of public diplomacy (Wang, 2006), or vice-versa. While they do share some similarities, public diplomacy and nation branding remain two separate instruments that can work towards shared goals (Melissen, 2005). Nation branding is more preoccupied with a nation image – its scope is broad, mostly a-political and generally aimed at economic gains. Public diplomacy, on the other hand, is more concerned with a nation identity – it usually has more strategic, short-term goals, aimed at obtaining foreign policy gains (Szondi, 2008).

To summarize, there is a growing understanding that the field of public diplomacy needs to be approached by practitioners and scholars in light of the digital revolution and the most recent innovation in ICTs. Similarly, scholars have also started to adopt a wider understanding of open government and e-democracy practices, in which their implementation has effects that go beyond domestic borders. Finally, managing the reputation of a country can be simultaneously seen as tool for public diplomacy and goal for open government initiatives. All these concepts, however, have yet to be addressed in a unifying, comprehensive model.

## II. METHODOLOGY

### 2.1 Defining aims and objectives

It appears clear from the literature review that open government initiatives have always been addressed from a national perspective. The main focus of studies that evaluate open government activities is on the public value that they can provide to citizens of the local or national government where they are implemented. Only exception to this is the case of growing international cooperation and multilateralism promoted through initiatives sponsored by international organizations such as the Open Government Partnership or the OECD.

Conversely, the literature on public diplomacy coherently focuses on the effects that actions implemented externally have on foreign publics, seldomly considering the repercussions of national policies. There is however a growing awareness that the line between national and foreign publics is blurring and public diplomacy needs to keep up with the increasing number of ways in which international reputation and soft power are being influenced both directly and indirectly.

There is a distinct lack of research on the role that open government can and does play as a tool of public diplomacy for countries that are interested in improving their national image or reputation, in addition to providing obvious benefits to their national citizens. This research focuses precisely on this international, or “external”, value of open government activities.

The main aim is to recognize a public diplomacy value of open government activities. Identifying this overlapping research area will, on one hand, instruct public servants and advocates for OG to evaluate OG policies in a broader, international context. The institutionalization of open government into international organization, for examples, provides countries with a distinct public diplomacy platform to signal their national values. On the other hand, as OG activities are implemented more and more at the national and international level, it is in the interests of any country to design their public diplomacy strategy in synergy with adopted open government initiatives in order to deliver the most value out of their openness. Public diplomacy practitioners are well aware that it is “possible for good policies to make no difference to a nation’s soft power if they are not publicized or coordinated with [public diplomacy]” (Cull, 2009, p. 28).

The public diplomacy dimension of open government initiatives is addressed more specifically through three research objectives:

- R1. To detect and analyse characteristics of open government activities as tools of public diplomacy.

- R2. To identify the effects of a successful integration of OG activities as tools of public diplomacy.
- R3. To analyse main characteristics of different countries' implementation of OG activities as part of their own public diplomacy strategies.

R1 refers to an attempt to define for the first time an approach to open government from a public diplomacy perspective and provide the building blocks for this newly defined research area. R2 addresses the need to assess more specifically the different causal relationships that influence the effectiveness of an OG activity from a public diplomacy angle. Finally, R3 is the evaluation on a practical level of the theoretical conceptualization of open government activities as instruments of public diplomacy. These three research objectives will together explore the fundamental elements of a theory for the public diplomacy dimension of open government.

## **2.2 Research design and methods**

There is a strong exploratory character to any research project that is set to investigate a possible brand new research area (Robson, 2002). Explorative researches are usually carried out through critical search of the literature, experts' interviews and focus group interviews (Sounders et al. 2009). They are also characterized by an inherent need for flexibility that allows for a progressive adaptation of the methodology in order to focus on the right issues as the research progresses (Adams and Schvaneveldt, 1991).

More specifically, the methodological choice for this research is a multi-method qualitative research, and comes directly from a reflection on the aims and objectives previously delineated. A multi-methods design is usually a useful way to approach exploratory research, as it provides multiple opportunities to evaluate the subject of the study, as well as improving the quality and scope of the findings (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). In this study, each research objective is addressed with a specific research design in line with its individual scope and objectives.

### *2.2.1 Critical literature review*

Related to R1, the methodological choice selected in order to lay down a general approach to open government from a public diplomacy perspective builds on a systematic literature review. The literature review focuses on available taxonomies, models and categorizations of both open government activities and public diplomacy. The final objective is to identify two frameworks, one coming from the OG literature and the other from the public diplomacy one, that used together provide a tool for the evaluation of the public diplomacy dimension of any open government activity. This means that identified frameworks for analysis can be adapted to fit the final aim of applying them in synergy on OG activities from their public diplomacy dimension.

### *2.2.2 Delphi study*

The methodological choice to answer R2 is a Delphi study submitted to experts in the field of open government. The aim of this part of the research is to bridge the gap between open government and public diplomacy analysis, understanding what is the scope of the integration of OG activities in public diplomacy and how to assess them. For this results from the Delphi study are integrated with the frameworks identified from the critical literature review in order to obtain a first comprehensive framework for OG as instrument of public diplomacy.

The Delphi method was originally developed by researchers at the RAND Corporation in 1950 (Riggs, 1983) and it has since been used in a number of studies to overcome difficulties related to group interactions. It usually entails a small number of participants who first receive a questionnaire on a specific topic; the responses are then used to develop a second questionnaire that also informs all participants of the rest of group's opinions and the process is repeated until a general consensus is reached (Hsu and Sandford, 2007). Usually, no more than three rounds are necessary to reach a satisfactory response (Hsu and Sandford, 2007).

The Delphi method is here suggested as a valuable methodological choice for several reasons. First, from a practical perspective, it does not require face-to-face interaction, making it easier to interview experts in different geographical locations and accommodate different schedules. Second, Delphi studies allow for the revelation of convergence of opinions or the identification of conflicting ones (Stevenson, 2010), which is especially useful when starting to explore a new branch of research. Third, Delphi studies can boost ideas sharing and learning, not only for the monitoring team or researcher, but also among participants. This point is of great importance when considering that open government activities are based on collaboration and open knowledge – experts in OG activities are therefore expected to be happily involved in this kind of study. Lastly, the Delphi method is a fitting methodology for both the fundamental elements of this research – public diplomacy and open government. For what regards the first, social sciences and the implementation of qualitative methods are a popular approach in the discipline, which provided important results in the past. Regarding the latter, it is important to recognize that because of the novelty and technicality of the subject, a specific subset of the population is necessary in order to make sure concepts of open government are already familiar to the sample.

In this study, the Delphi panel consists of experts in different areas of public policy that have valuable experience in developing, implementing, assessing, and advocating for open government activities in different geographical regions.

The study is structured in three rounds. In the first round, a survey with simple open ended questions is submitted to all participants in order to collect different point of views on the public diplomacy value of open government. Building on the answers provided in the first round, a list of relevant issues is derived and used to build the second questionnaire, where participants are asked to express their opinion on a number of statements. Finally, those statements where consensus is not reached are re-submitted to the panel in order to reach consensus.

### *2.2.3 Case study*

The methodology selected to answer R3 is a multi-case study research. The rationale behind this choice is that case study analysis effectively tackles the need to empirically test the validity of the theoretical framework identified through R1 and R2. Case studies also provide a unique perspective on the relationship between the studied phenomena and the context around it (Yin, 2003), thus providing a deeper understanding of the processes that characterize the relation (Morris and Wood, 1991).

The two countries selected for the case study, Canada and South Korea, present comparable efforts in open government activities, but their international reputation differ enough to provide an interesting analysis. For each country, one OG initiative is identified to carry out a case study analysis, keeping in mind their public diplomacy strategy.

The selected OG activities are evaluated against the framework developed from the combination of the open government one, the public diplomacy one, and the insights from the Delphi study. The final result is a first empirical evaluation of the public diplomacy value of OG activities in countries with different public diplomacy strategies.

## **2.3 Analysis of results**

The strategy of adopting multiple approaches in either the research, data collection or data analysis stages of a research is referred to as triangulation. The concept of triangulation was introduced by Denzin (1978) in the field of social research as a tool to increase the validity of qualitative research. Triangulation of multiple methods, data sources and analysis is today widely regarded as a way to discover extra knowledge and confirming previous assumptions about a topic (Flick, 2003).

The multiple methodologies applied in this research project are all finalized towards the same end goal, identifying the public diplomacy value of open government. They do so by answering three distinct but interrelated research questions. Triangulation is therefore applied not only at the research design stage, but also at the data analysis stage, as shown by the research project overview (Figure 4).



Specifically, the figure shows how R1 is researched through the literature review methodology, in order to find *what* are the characteristics of an open government activity as instrument of public diplomacy. The two results of this step are the selection of a taxonomy for open government activities and a framework for public diplomacy activity. R2 is researched mostly through the Delphi study and aims to look into *why* open government activities can be considered successful tools of public diplomacy. Results from the Delphi study are collected and integrated with the previously identified models to obtain a comprehensive framework for the assessment of OG initiatives as tools of public diplomacy. Lastly, R3 is researched through multiple case study analysis, to understand *how* different countries implement open government initiatives as instrument of their own public diplomacy. To do so, selected OG activities implemented Canada and South Korea’s public diplomacy are assessed against the newly developed framework.

The results of all three steps will thus inform each other, bringing the research project to conclusions that can be supported by more than one source.

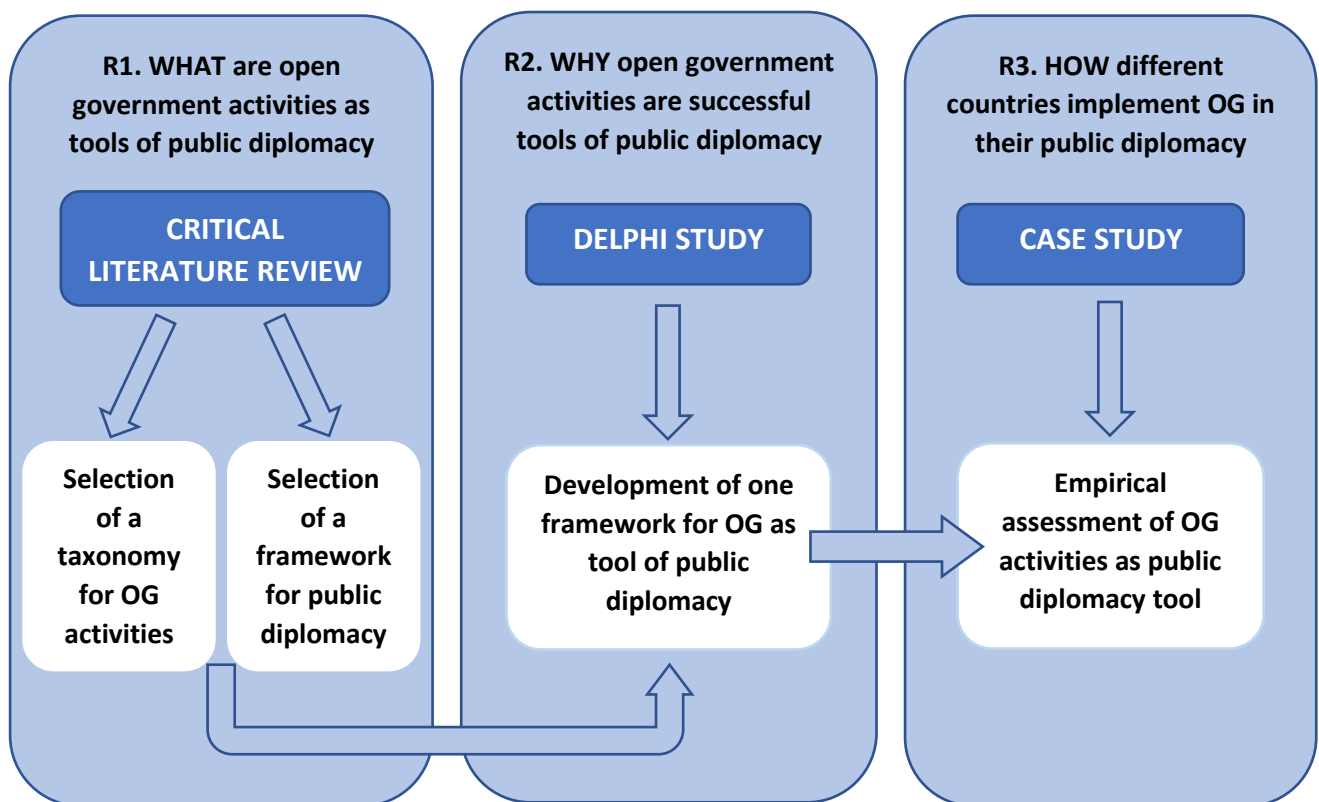


Figure 4 - Overview of the research project

## **2.4 Sampling and data collection**

The sampling and data collection methods selected for each methodological choice of the research project are dictated by feasibility, time and resources constraints, keeping in mind the specific research objectives.

### *2.4.1 Delphi study*

Given the practical difficulties of obtaining and elaborating a large number of responses, participants for Delphi studies are normally chosen using non-probability sampling, as “inevitably, the more complex the subject matter the smaller the number of interviewees” (Sounders et al., 2009, p. 344). A total of 11 participants have agreed to take part in this research project. Experts were initially contacted through email, LinkedIn and Twitter, selected for their job position, experience in working with OG, and their geographical area of expertise (Appendix 1.1).

Participants are all deeply familiar with concepts of open government, their expertise varying from public sector innovation analysis to transparency and participatory citizenship advocacy, from private sector transformation consultancy to open government strategies implementation. They work at different institutional levels: national governments, supra-national organizations, multinational organizations, NGOs, academia, and the private sector. Moreover, they are geographically diverse, with experts from countries in North and South America, Europe and Asia. Some participants have also been selected because of their specific insights into open government activities implemented in Canada and South Korea.

The Delphi study consists of three rounds of surveys sent through email every two weeks. In the first round, participants are asked to answer general open-ended questions on the public diplomacy value of open government and the public diplomacy value of OG strategies of Canada and South Korea (Appendix 1.2). Building on their answers, key issues are identified (Appendix 1.3) and a second survey is developed. This time, experts are asked to express their opinion on statements that refer to the identified issues (Appendix 1.4). After the second round, statements on which neither a positive nor negative consensus has been reached are re-submitted for a third round (Appendix 1.5). This time, however, participants are given feedback on the percentage of overall positive or negative opinions shared in the previous round (Appendix 1.6). The study is completed at the end of the third round, with general consensus being reached on most issues (Appendix 1.7).

Given the small number of participants, consensus in this study is defined as an overall either positive or negative opinion greater than or equal to 70% ( $\geq 70\%$ ). In the second round, all opinions except one are expressed on a 5 point Linkert scale (Strongly Disagree – Disagree – Neither agree or disagree – Agree – Strongly Agree). Strongly Disagree and Disagree choices are considered negative

opinions, while Strongly Agree and Agree are considered positive ones. The only question that is not answered with a Linkert scale asks experts to rank 12 items. In the third round, in order to make it easier to achieve consensus, only Agree or Disagree options are provided.

Participants have demonstrated interest and commitment to the research project, with no issue rising at any point during the study. Surveys were submitted through Google Forms and the guaranteed anonymity for participants allowed them not only to express their opinion with honesty, but also to potentially change it in following rounds. For the same purpose, none of the participants knew the identity of other experts on the panel.

#### *2.4.2 Case study*

A small sample generally suffices for case study analyses. In this research, cases are selected using purposive sampling. First, two countries that are similarly experienced in the adoption of open government initiatives but with different international reputations are selected. Then, for each country two cases are identified where OG activities with some affiliation to their international reputation have been successfully implemented.

For what regards the choice of the two countries, the criteria taken into consideration are the levels of open government and the reputation among foreign publics. Indexes used to inform the selection have been derived from literature on open government, public diplomacy and country branding.

The first criteria, the level of “openness”, relies on open government ranking literature, most of which is focused on open data (OD) analysis, with fewer sources aggregating enough data to provide a ranking of nations according to their open government activities in general. Notable exceptions are reports from the OGP and the World Justice Project (WJP, n.d.). Four different indexes are identified as useful for the purposes of country selection (Appendix 2.1). The ranking scales of these indexes present minor differences, proving that there is a general agreement on the overall levels of implementation of open government practices in different countries.

The second variable in country selection is reputation. Multiple indexes exist that rank countries according to international reputation, most of them providing differentiations for categories such as quality of life, citizenship values, technology, democracy, transparency etc. Four indexes are selected after a careful analysis (Appendix 2.2). They all result from large-scale research on the perception that foreign publics have of other countries, with a specific focus on soft power, country branding and responsibility to the wider world.

After carefully considering the rankings on all the indexes selected for the task, Canada and South Korea are identified as the two countries from which case studies can be investigated. They have a similar enough position in all open government indexes (Appendix 2.3) as proven also by their well

established position within the Open Government Partnership. However, substantial differences in ranking position appear for international reputation. While Canada is consistently nearly at the top of all rankings for national branding and “good citizen” reputation, South Korea does not rank particularly high, not even controlling for perception of transparency or citizenship values among foreign publics (Appendix 2.4).

The case study selection for each country is mainly based on research on each country’s public diplomacy strategies and their focus areas in open government practices. Final case studies are selected from the Case Study Archive of the Observatory of Public Sector Innovation (OPSI, n.d.) at the OECD.

Canada has long been considered an interesting country from the public diplomacy perspective (e.g. Henrikson, 2005; Potter, 2002). Its national brand of a “good neighbour” and champion for human rights, equality and citizenship is equally reflected in the high intensity of its open government activities related to financial transparency and accountability, corporate transparency, digital government and services, access to information and feminist and inclusive dialogue (Open Government Partnership, n.d.). The open government initiative selected for Canada is the Open Policy Model (OPSI, 2014).

South Korea’s public diplomacy is instead mainly cultural, with a strong reliance on the private sector to spread the Korean brand abroad, supported and sometimes subsidized by the national government (Choi, 2019). However, this is not clearly reflected on South Korea’s open government focus areas, which greatly relate to citizen participation in domestic and foreign policy-making and open data (Open Government Partnership, 2020a). Interestingly enough, South Korea is consistently ranked as one of the most digitalized societies in the world, but it seems like it has yet to fully integrate this defying cultural aspect into its public diplomacy strategy (Robertson, 2018). The selected case study for South Korea is the Information Network Village (INVIL) (OPSI, 2014a).

## III. RESEARCH RESULTS

### 3.1 Critical literature review

The first research part to look for the models of open government and public diplomacy activities is carried out through a critical literature review of relevant on-line sources. Journals and e-book are the main sources consulted for this methodological part. Only shortlisted and relevant conceptualizations are reported in this chapter.

#### 3.1.1 Open government taxonomy

A first clear result from critical open government literature review is that case study analyses dominate the field. This is not surprising, given the inherently practical nature of open government initiatives. Even when approached from an academic perspective, in fact, OG activities are always researched by practitioners or scholars who have a direct interest in providing additional value to society in a tangible way.

Moreover, there appears to be a growing trend towards empirically-informed, evaluative models for open government efficiency (e.g. Vetrò et al. 2015; Kalampokis et al. (2011), partly given by the so-called “monitoring and evaluation divide of open government initiatives” (OECD, 2016, p.8) In fact, whilst regular monitoring of OG activities is carried out by an overwhelming majority of countries, only about half actually evaluate the impact of those initiatives. The lack of evaluation is a worrisome trend, as solid monitoring and evaluation systems are together indispensable to ensure the best implementation of public policy initiatives.

A second result of the critical literature review on applicable frameworks for OG is that past analyses of open government activities have often been sectoral. Open government can be employed at any stage of the public policy life-cycle (European Commission, 2016), which refers to the commonly adopted model of the public policy process that includes six stages: agenda setting, policy formulation, legitimation, implementation, evaluation and policy maintenance (Howlett and Ramesh, 1995). Given the versatility of open government, it is reasonable that, especially during the first days of OG research, the angle adopted from scholars is only partial to the specific set of activities they were researching.

Furthermore, open government frameworks are often non-comprehensive because they refer to one type of open government practice. For example, one of the most applied models of OG activity is Lee and Kwak’s (2012) Open Government Maturity Model (OGMM). The OGMM consists in recognizing five levels of maturity for open government: *initial conditions*, *data transparency*, *open participation*, *open collaboration*, and *ubiquitous engagement*. The framework is a tool for

government agencies to assess their own open government maturity and focus on achieving the next level in gradual increments so as to build robust infrastructure and capabilities. This model is fairly adaptable to different systems, however the authors themselves recognize that the kind of open government practices that are better assessed through this framework are of the public engagement programs kind, particularly ones enabled by social media.

Finally, one of the most comprehensive and adaptable model to classify open government initiatives is the taxonomy proposed in study prepared for the European Commission that analyses the value of Open eGovernment (OGS) Services to promote innovation and digitalization in the public sector (European Commission, 2016). OGS are described as “open, collaborative and digital based services characterized by a deliberate, declared and purposeful effort to increase openness and collaboration through technology in order to deliver increased public value. The open, collaborative and co-production features exist in all phases of the design, deployment, implementation and delivery of the service” (European Commission, 2016, p.14). This description can easily fit the concept of OG activities as intended in this research, thus making findings regarding OGS valid for OG activities as well.

The authors present a taxonomy designed to classify a any open government activity according to elements of its design, implementation, and final aims (Figure 5). It allows for detailed categorization starting from two main approaches: type and scope.

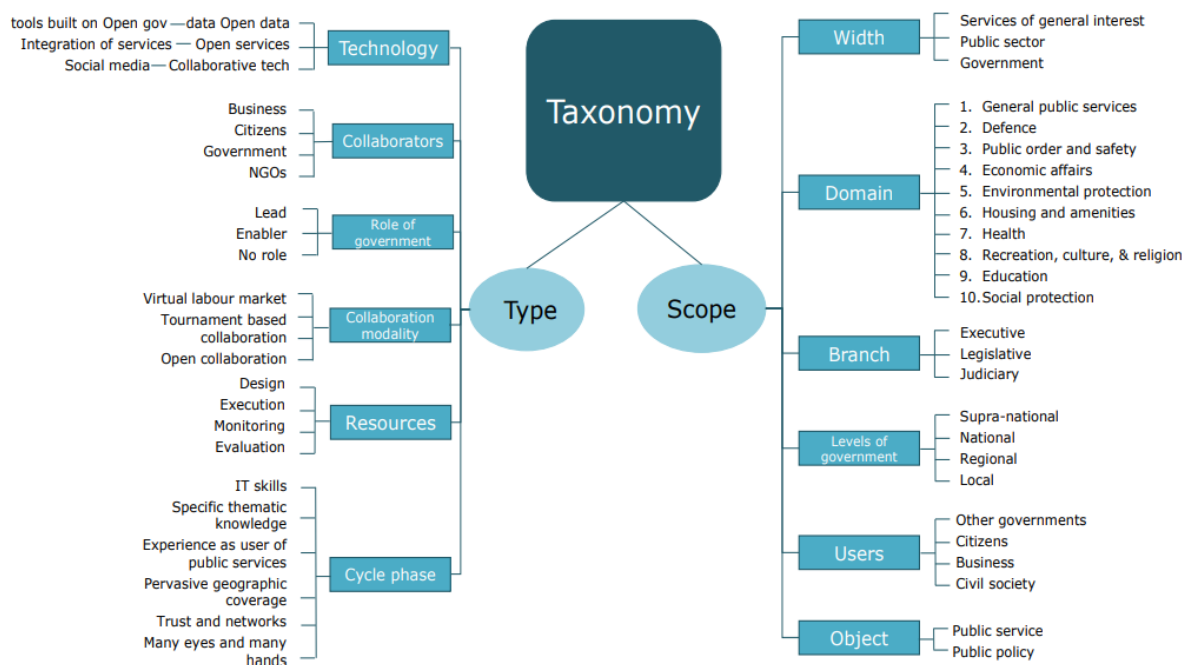


Figure 5 - Taxonomy of OGS proposed by European Commission (2016)

The taxonomy of scope can be employed to classify open government activities by their general features, defying the environment in which they were conceived and on which they are going to act. The taxonomy of types, on the other hand, can be applied to classify OGS according to more technical aspects, such as technology employed and resources utilized.

For the purpose of this research, which is to eventually develop a model to assess OG initiatives from a public diplomacy perspective, only key dimensions that might provide public diplomacy value are necessary. Therefore, a final taxonomy (Figure 6) is elaborated starting from the taxonomy of scope – with some minor adjustments – to be inclusive and exhaustive enough.

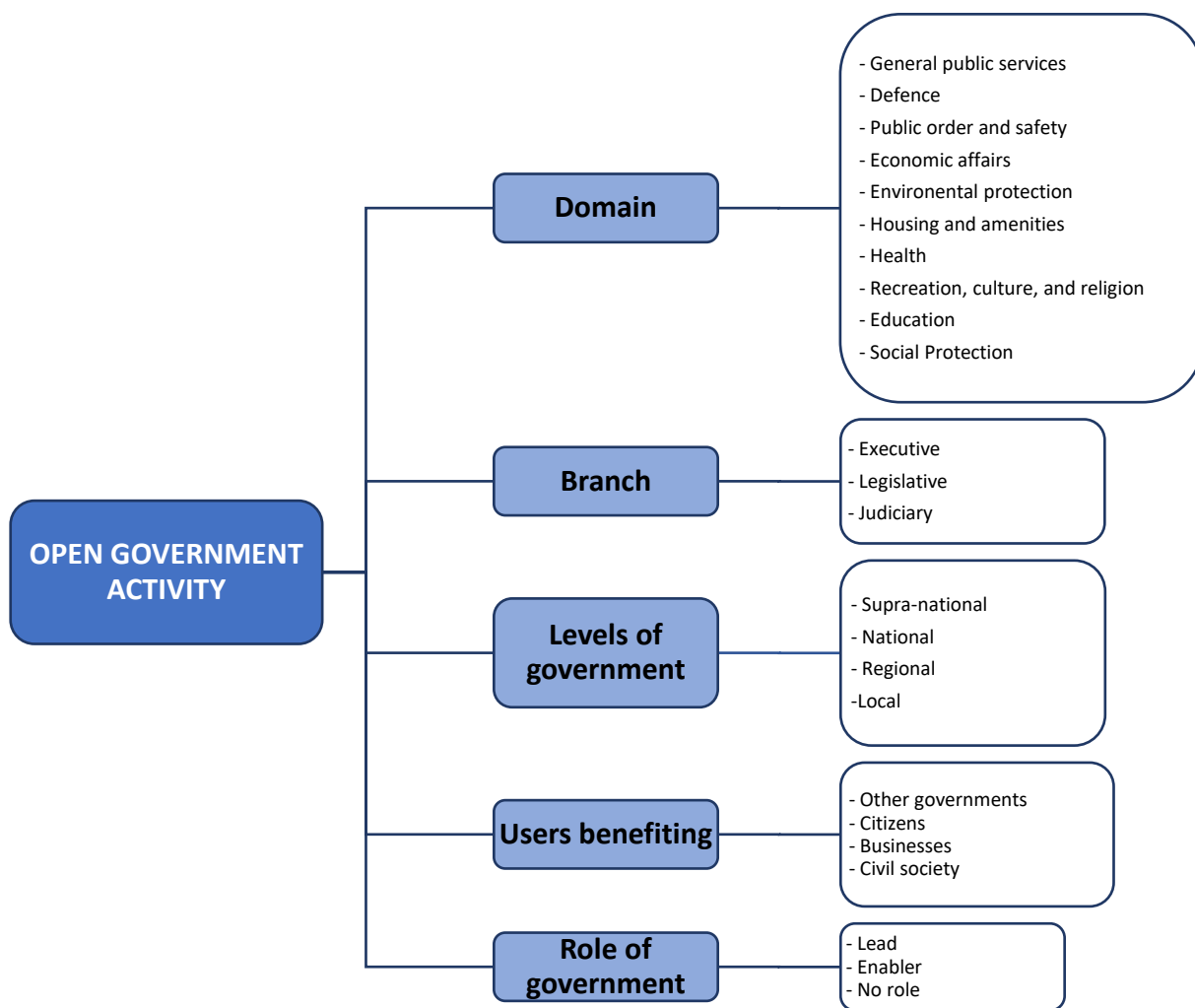


Figure 6 - Taxonomy of open government activities  
Adapted from European Commission (2016)

The *domain* category refers to the areas of public policy interested by the activity: *general public services*, meaning it has no specific field to which it refers; *defense*, including military and civil; *public order and safety*, including police and fire safety departments; *economic affairs*, including national and international general economics, labor and commercial affairs, agriculture, fishing, energy, manufacturing and construction etc.; *housing and community amenities*, including housing, community development, access to goods like water, electricity, street lighting etc.; *health*, including

all public health services, hospitals, medical equipment, outpatient etc.; *recreation, culture and religion*, including sporting and cultural services, broadcasting, publishing, religious and other community services; *education*, including all levels of schooling, from pre-primary to post-secondary, teaching and all supportive services; *social protection*, including support to all at-risk groups, safety nets for unemployment, disability, old age, housing, family, sickness, social exclusions etc.

The *branch* category is used to identify whether the activity falls under the responsibility of the executive, legislative or judiciary branch of government. The three branches refer to the doctrine of the separation of powers, according to which governance should be split in different institutions, with most powers and responsibility divided among them (Persson et al., 1997). This is done generally to maintain a system of “checks and balances” and prevent one institution to hold all the power. In most countries the division of power is not absolute, with some responsibilities crossing over different branches, but a general separation of duties is still applied. The *executive branch* is in charge of daily administrative tasks, formulates and implements policy and holds the power to execute the law. The *legislative branch* is the legislator and holds the power to enact, amend and repeal legislations. The *judiciary branch* exercises scrutiny over the executive branch and holds the power to interpret and apply the law.

The *level of government* category indicates at what institutional level the open government activity is implemented. The *supra-national level* includes international organizations (such as the OGP) or unions (like the European Union), in which member states retain their national sovereignty while pursuing common goals. The *national level* is the level of one nation-state and encompasses everything in its borders and jurisdiction. The *regional level* refers to the administrative unit lower than the national government, it can sometimes take the name of state, province, region, or other. The *local level* is the lowest tier of administration, it refers to all more immediately available public administrations, such as county, district, city, town, borough, municipality etc.

The *user benefiting* category indicates the user who will interact directly with the open government initiative. *Other governments* are ultimate users when OG practices are planned to be utilized by the public administration at different levels, branches or institutions. *Citizens* are users benefiting when they are directly involved in the OG activity in any of its stages. *Businesses* can also be ultimate users when they are considered to be a direct contributor to the activity. One open government activity can have more than one user benefiting, however it is important to consider both the initial conceptualization of the activity and its implementation to evaluate final users.



The *role of government* category is the only one that was originally included in the taxonomy of type. It refers to the role that the government plays in the design, implementation or support of open government activities. Government as *lead* of the initiative means that the administration has designed and launched the activity. The *enabler* role refers to those OG initiatives that, while building on the initiative of private actors, can only be implemented through the intervention, at any level, of government. Finally, the government can have *no role* in the OG activity if it is built and implemented without its authorization or even awareness.

The category of *width*, present in the original OGS taxonomy of scope, has not been included in the taxonomy for OG initiatives, as it only includes information on the main elements of the taxonomy itself, not on the specific activity.

### 3.1.2 Public diplomacy framework

The discipline of public diplomacy has a long history of discussion and research in the academic literature, with a number of studies carried out in order to conceptualize it. A first result that comes out of the critical literature review is that in the discipline of public diplomacy case studies are one of the most popular methodological choices. This is not too dissimilar from the case of open government research, and that is due to the fact that social sciences often employ comparative analyses and case studies to build theories and models on those generalizations.

Case study research in public diplomacy is highly variegated, but there is a substantial amount of studies that focus on western countries, and particularly the US. That trend is slowly changing, with more geographical regions and countries being investigated more and more. Middle powers such as Canada and Norway, for example, are increasingly subject to comparative analysis (Bátora, 2006; Henrikson, 2005). The reason for this is that countries without huge populations or other means of hard power have substantially different aims and objectives in foreign policy than big powers like the US or China.

A second important result from the critical literature review is that models and frameworks proposed to evaluate public diplomacy often come from other disciplines. Particularly, scholars of communications, international relations and PR, have tried to converge public diplomacy and their respecting fields, applying, with necessary adaptations, several models.

While the adoption of an international relations or communication approach can indeed result in helpful conceptualization of some public diplomacy activity, the most popular discipline associated with public diplomacy remains public relations. More and more scholars suggest that the two fields are virtually merging, especially with the rise of disciplines like nation branding, which exists right at the crossroads between PR, international relations and public diplomacy (Ham, 2002).

The use of PR models in public diplomacy was initially promoted by Signitzer and Coombs (1992), who called for a more empirical approach from public diplomacy scholars. Some of the studies which followed this direction focused on the effects that PR strategies had when applied to public diplomacy. Still today, the majority of the research on the intersection between public relation and public diplomacy remains descriptive. One of the most important exception is presented by Yun (2006), who introduces the Excellence Study developed by Grunig et al. (2002) to the public diplomacy field, and then empirically tests it on 113 embassies in Washington, D.C.

Another substantial contribution to the literature on public diplomacy frameworks of analysis is taxonomies. Taxonomies have been suggested by different scholars, who tried to categorize large numbers of different public diplomacy activities. Leonard (2002), for example, aims at providing a tool for the comparative analysis of public diplomacy activities. His suggestion is that any public diplomacy activity can be categorized according to three dimensions, three spheres, two types, and five instruments. He does not, however, integrate them into a single model (Gilboa, 2008).

One of the most popular frameworks for approaching public diplomacy initiatives is Cull's taxonomy of public diplomacy (Cull, 2008). Cull's framework remains a fairly easy and straightforward tool to classify activities according to five fundamental types: *listening*, *advocacy*, *cultural diplomacy*, *exchange diplomacy*, and *international broadcasting*. The *time frame* of each type refers to whether it is able to achieve short, medium, or long term goals. *Flow of information* refers to the direction of communication that takes place through the public diplomacy activity. The *typical infrastructure* categorization refers to the typical or necessary means through which the activity takes place. Finally, the *source of credibility* refers to the image that every activity needs to present in order to be effective in achieving its goals. Moreover, the concept of credibility is also linked to the degree of necessary perceived connection between the activity and the foreign actor undertaking it. (Figure 7).

The first element, *listening*, refers to the effort of an international actor to collect and interpret information about its target audiences. Data coming from listening initiatives is then used for directing other policy decisions or other public diplomacy strategies. The *time frame* of listening activities can be either short or long term. The *flow of information* is inward, as it comes from the foreign public and is directed towards domestic analysts and policy advisors. For what regards the *typical infrastructure* needed, listening activities implement monitoring technology, as well as language-trained staff. More recently, they are often carried out through systematic public opinion monitoring. The *source of credibility* is the validity of the methods used to collect the data and it is only helped by a perceived connection to the domestic actor in cases when the actor is actually presenting itself as listening to foreign public opinion.

The second element of the taxonomy is *advocacy*. Advocacy in public diplomacy terms means to implement intentional communication strategies targeted at foreign audiences with the objective to promote a specific domestic idea, policy or interest. The *time frame* is typically very short term and the direction of the *flow of information* is outward, unilaterally from the actor to the public. The *typical infrastructure* behind advocacy is usually a press office, often of an embassy or foreign minister. The *source of credibility* relies on the proximity to the government, or other international actors.

*Cultural diplomacy* activities consist in the efforts to promote a specific culture in foreign publics. The *time frame* for these activities is long term, and the *flow of information* is directed outward, as it only comes from the domestic actor. The *typical infrastructure* used are often cultural centres, usually ones referring to specific areas of the culture to promote, like language, arts, or cuisine. The *source of credibility* is found in the prestige of the cultural centres and there is a strong effort to distance the activity from the authority of the international actor in order to preserve its credibility.

The *exchange diplomacy* type includes the attempt to influence international publics by sending and receiving citizens to and from overseas. This kind of public diplomacy activity can sometimes overlap with cultural diplomacy, but the concept of reciprocity means it can be used to achieve specific policy objectives. The *time frame* for exchange diplomacy is very long term and the direction of the *flow of information* is bilaterally inward and outward. *Typical infrastructure* normally required are simple administration offices. The *source of credibility* is dependent on the perception of the mutuality of the exchange and it can be hinged by showing proximity to the actor if the exchange is not genuine.

Lastly, *international broadcasting* is one of the most implemented public diplomacy activities as it entails the employment of ITCs to engage with foreign audiences. While international broadcasting can be used in support of all other elements of public diplomacy, a particular declination of this kind of public diplomacy is the use of news. The *time frame* for international broadcasting is the medium term, the *flow of information* is clearly outward but coming from specific *typical infrastructure*: newsrooms, editorial offices and other facilities with the necessary technological infrastructure in place. The *source of credibility* relies on the perceived objectivity of the information, backed up by evidence of journalistic rigor. Moreover, it is usually helped by a perceived distance from the sending international actor.

Types of public diplomacy	Time frame	Flow of information	Typical infrastructure	Source of credibility	Helped by perceived connection/distance
Listening	Short and long term	Inward	Monitoring technology	Validity of methods/data	Both
Advocacy	Short term	Outward	Press offices	Proximity to government	Connection
Cultural diplomacy	Long term	Outward	Cultural centres	Proximity to cultural authority	Distance
Exchange diplomacy	Very long term	Inward and outward	Exchange administration offices	Perception of mutuality	Both
International broadcasting	Medium term	Outward	ICTs, transmitter facilities	Evidence of journalistic practice	Distance

Figure 7 - Taxonomy of public diplomacy  
Adapted from Cull (2008)

A last notable framework for analysis of public diplomacy activity has been suggested by Gilboa (2008) who suggests the implementation of three dimensions: immediate, intermediate, and long. Each dimension is characterized by a *time frame*, *final purpose*, *relationship with media and public opinion*, *degree of connection to the government*, and *public diplomacy instruments* (Figure 8).

The *immediate level* refers to very short term activities implemented often by government officials in order to react to some event. Instruments preferred in this case are advocacy, international broadcasting and cyber public diplomacy.

The *intermediate level* refers to more proactive planning and requires the cooperation of governmental and non-governmental actors to implement strategic communication plans. Preferred instruments in this case are corporate diplomacy, international public relations and diaspora public diplomacy (carried out by citizens that are based overseas).

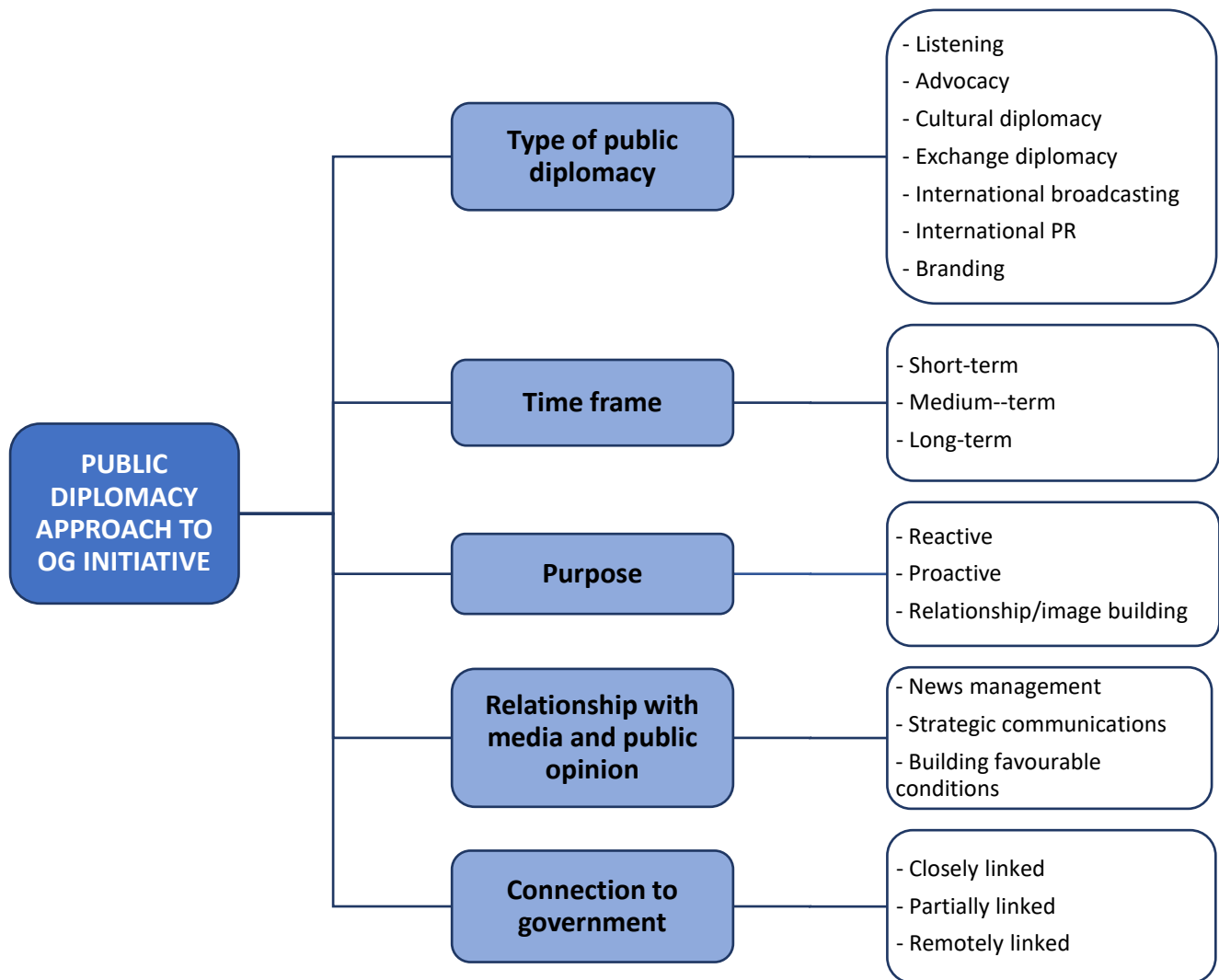
Lastly, the *long range* refers to public diplomacy initiatives with years-long goals of building relationships and trust, in addition to building a favourable image. These activities have bigger success when the connection to the government is less obvious, and best instruments to carry them out are cultural diplomacy, exchanges and branding.

Range of public diplomacy	Time frame	Purpose	Media / Public opinion	Connection to Government	Public diplomacy instrument
Immediate	Hours/day	Reactive	News management	Closely linked	Advocacy; International broadcasting; cyber PD
Intermediate	Weeks/months	Proactive	Strategic communications	Partially linked	International PR; corporate diplomacy; diaspora diplomacy
Long	Years	Relationship	Building favourable conditions	Remotely linked	Cultural diplomacy; exchanges; branding

Figure 8 - Framework for analysis of public diplomacy activities  
Adapted from Gilboa (2008)

The taxonomy represented in Figure 7 and the framework of Figure 8 present a number of similarities. Most importantly, they can be combined for the purpose of this research in order to create a framework for analysis of OG activities from a public diplomacy perspective (Figure 9).

The framework of Figure 9 presents a similar structure to the one suggested by Gilboa (2008). Among the five categories originally suggested, *purpose*, *relationship with media*, and *connection to government* are kept in the revisited one. The categories of *type of public diplomacy* and *time frame* are more similar to those suggested by Cull (2008), with the five fundamental elements of public diplomacy being included (*Listening; Advocacy; Cultural diplomacy; Exchange diplomacy; International broadcasting*) and supplemented by other two (*International PR* and *Branding*).



*Figure 9 - Framework for a public diplomacy approach to open government initiatives  
Adapted from Cull (2008) e Gilboa (2008)*

### 3.2 Delphi Study

The second methodological choice for this research project is a Delphi study. The Delphi method allows for an incredible opportunity to enrich results that can be derived from the literature review, framing them in a more comprehensive view of the public diplomacy dimension of open government, as regarded by experts and practitioners in the field. This Delphi study is composed of three rounds, each iteration including a questionnaire based on the answer to the previous one.

The first round includes 6 questions in total, 3 of which are open-ended questions and 3 are Linkert scales (Appendix 1.2). The open questions are used to gauge general opinions on the topic of open government in relation to public diplomacy, policy areas where OG can have major effects on a country's reputation, and examples of OG initiatives that have positively impacted the international reputation of a country. These questions were developed to collect as many ideas and suggestions as possible, even contradictory ones. To answer, experts are not required to believe that there is any direct link between international reputation and implementation of open government activities.

Questions implementing a Linkert scale are used to collect more directly the opinion of the panel on the possible correlation between OG initiatives and international reputation, and the relationship between the OG strategy of Canada and South Korea and their respective international reputation. The answers give more clear information on what is the general view of the panel on open government from a public diplomacy perspective.

Results of the first round are interesting but contradictory (Appendix 1.3). Whilst answers to the open-ended questions provide a great deal of views on the way that implementing OG can influence the international relations of a country, the reaction to the closed-ended questions is more lukewarm. From the answers provided in the first three questions, a list of relevant issues is drafted with items in relation to the public diplomacy value of OG, and suggestions for the most important areas of public policy which impact international reputation. Several initiatives from more were suggested as examples of open government practices for strategic communication purposes or virtue signalling.

From all these answers, a 14 questions questionnaire is built, including views from all submissions (Appendix 1.4). The objective of a Delphi study is ultimately to reach consensus of opinion, therefore the survey submitted in the second round is made up of only closed-ended questions, easier to compare. All but one question are statements on which experts are asked to express their opinion through the same 5 points Linkert scale used in the previous round. Of the total, 9 questions refer to specific elements of the public diplomacy value of open government activities:

- Attract foreign direct investment;
- Policy legitimization and support policy continuity;

- Increase soft power;
- Shape and export national brand;
- Signal political stability;
- Signal support for multilateralism;
- Signal economic development;
- Signal trustworthiness;
- Increase reputation among foreign public servants.

The only non-Linkert scale question is a ranking scale in which the panel is asked to order policy areas according to what they believe is the most successful in influencing international reputation when open government activities are implemented. The 12 items to rank are all derived from the first round's suggestions. Another question wants to investigate whether this ranking could be linked to trends in public opinion and public policy.

One of the questions regards the role of the Open Government Partnership in pushing OG through international competition. The final two questions are about the relationship between just nominally adopting open government initiatives and actually achieving their objectives. In one question, experts are asked if they believe it is easier for governments to lose reputation if OG objectives are missed than for their reputation to be improved by simply implementing OG activities. In the other, participants are asked to state their opinion on the topic of "open washing", specifically whether it is becoming an issue in the field. The term "open washing" was suggested by one of the experts during the first round of Delphi survey, and it was described as the practice of implementing initiatives to give the impression of openness, without actually achieving tangible results that increase transparency, accountability, or collaboration.

Results from the second round are encouraging (Appendix 1.5). Consensus is achieved in all but 7 questions. The public diplomacy value of open government activities is collectively agreed to refer to policy legitimization and policy continuity, an increase in soft power, shaping and exporting national brand, signalling trustworthiness, and achieving better reputation among foreign public servants. Moreover, answers to the ranking question are used to create an overall ranking of policy issues according to their impact on international reputation when OG activities are implemented (Figure 10). However, the final ranking reported in Figure 10 is considered to be highly responsive to trends in public opinion and public policy.

Consensus is not achieved on the value of OG activities to attract foreign direct investment, to signal the political stability of a country, to signal commitment to multilateralism, and to signal economic development. Opinion are also split on the role of the Open Government Partnership in pushing for international competition, the relevance of "open washing", and the gravity of the reputational damage that comes from not meeting OG objectives.



The third round is therefore made up of 7 questions (Appendix 1.6). Consensus is reached for 3 of them, confirming the value of OG activities as they signal a country’s support for multilateralism, that OG activities do not signal a country’s economic development, and that the practice of “open washing” is indeed becoming a problem in the field. Figure 10 summarizes the main findings from the entire Delphi study – a list of experts-approved public diplomacy values of open government initiatives and the ranking of influential policy areas.

Recognized public diplomacy values of OG activities	Most influential policy areas for implementing OG activities
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Policy legitimization and support policy continuity</li> <li>▪ Increase soft power</li> <li>▪ Shape and export national brand</li> <li>▪ Signal support for multilateralism</li> <li>▪ Signal trustworthiness</li> <li>▪ Increase reputation among foreign public servants</li> </ul>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Fiscal transparency</li> <li>2. Democratic participation</li> <li>3. Digitalization of public administration</li> <li>4. Anti-corruption</li> <li>5. Open data</li> <li>6. Freedom of information</li> <li>7. Health</li> <li>8. Environment</li> <li>9. Labor market</li> <li>10. Gender</li> <li>11. Entrepreneurship policy</li> <li>12. National defense</li> </ol>

*Figure 10 - Salient results from Delphi study*

Opinions remains very split on the remaining issues (Appendix 1.7), with a slight majority disagreeing with the idea that OG activities signal the political stability of a country (55,6%), agreeing that the Open Government Partnership promotes OG practices through international competition (55,6%), and disagreeing on the fact that failing to achieve OG objectives has a stronger reputational impact than implementing OG initiatives at all (55,6%). A higher majority (66,7%) agrees that being committed to OG initiatives can attract foreign direct investment, but that percentage is still not high enough to reach consensus. Another reiteration of the Delphi process could possibly clarify a consensus on this last point, it remains however unlikely that consensus is reached for the other questions.

### **3.3 Framework for open government activities as tools of public diplomacy**

The critical literature review of most important models in the field of open government and public diplomacy has led to two substantial results. First, the taxonomy of open government activities (Figure 6) was derived, adapted from the taxonomy of OGS proposed in the study for the European Commission (2016). Second, the framework for a public diplomacy approach to open government

activities (Figure 9) was presented, building on the taxonomy of public diplomacy proposed by Cull (2008) and the framework for public diplomacy proposed by Gilboa (2008). Lastly, results from the Delphi study have brought new insights into the definition of a public diplomacy value of open government activities (Figure 11), and shed light to current issues in the field that could have not been identified from second data analysis.

The integration between the taxonomy of open government activities, the framework for a public diplomacy approach to OG activities, and the results from the Delphi study produces the final framework for open government activities as tools of public diplomacy (Figure 12). The framework is divided into five main categories: *type of public diplomacy*; *effects*; *domain*; *relationship with government*; *users benefitting*.

The *type of public diplomacy* category refers to the types identified in the framework for a public diplomacy approach to OG, namely *listening*, *advocacy*, *cultural diplomacy*, *exchange diplomacy*, *international broadcasting*, *international PR*, *branding*. The instruments employed and the relationship with media identified by Cull (2008) and Gilboa (2008) in their respective works remain the same. However, it is important to note that one OG activity can be an instrument of public diplomacy in more than one way, therefore allowing for more types of public diplomacy activity to be connected to the same OG initiative.

The *effects* category refers to the goals that the OG activity wants to achieve through public diplomacy instruments. The identified elements in this category are derived from the Delphi study: *policy legitimization and support policy continuity*; *increase soft power*; *shape and export national brand*; *signal support for multilateralism*; *signal trustworthiness*; *increase reputation among foreign public servants*. This category is therefore vastly different in scope and conceptualization from the *purpose* one identified by Gilboa (2008).

*Domain* refers to the policy area that applies to open government initiatives. The items in this category are derived from the Delphi study results: *fiscal transparency*; *democratic participation*; *digitalization of public administration*; *anti-corruption*; *open data*; *freedom of information*; *health*; *environment*; *labor market*; *gender*; *entrepreneurship policy*; *national defense*. The value of these items as assessment tools is partly influenced by changes in public opinion and world affairs. The list can be subsequently integrated by other policy areas, starting from the ones proposed in the *domain* category from the taxonomy of OGS (Figure 8).

The *relationship with government* category contains three more classifications, each providing important information on the public diplomacy value of an OG activity. The three sub-categories, all derived from the taxonomy of open government activities adapted from the European Commission (2016) are: *role of government*; *level of government*; and *branch of government*. Their respective declinations maintain their original meanings. The same meaning and declinations are also maintained in the users benefitting category (*other governments*; *citizens*; *businesses*; *civil society*).

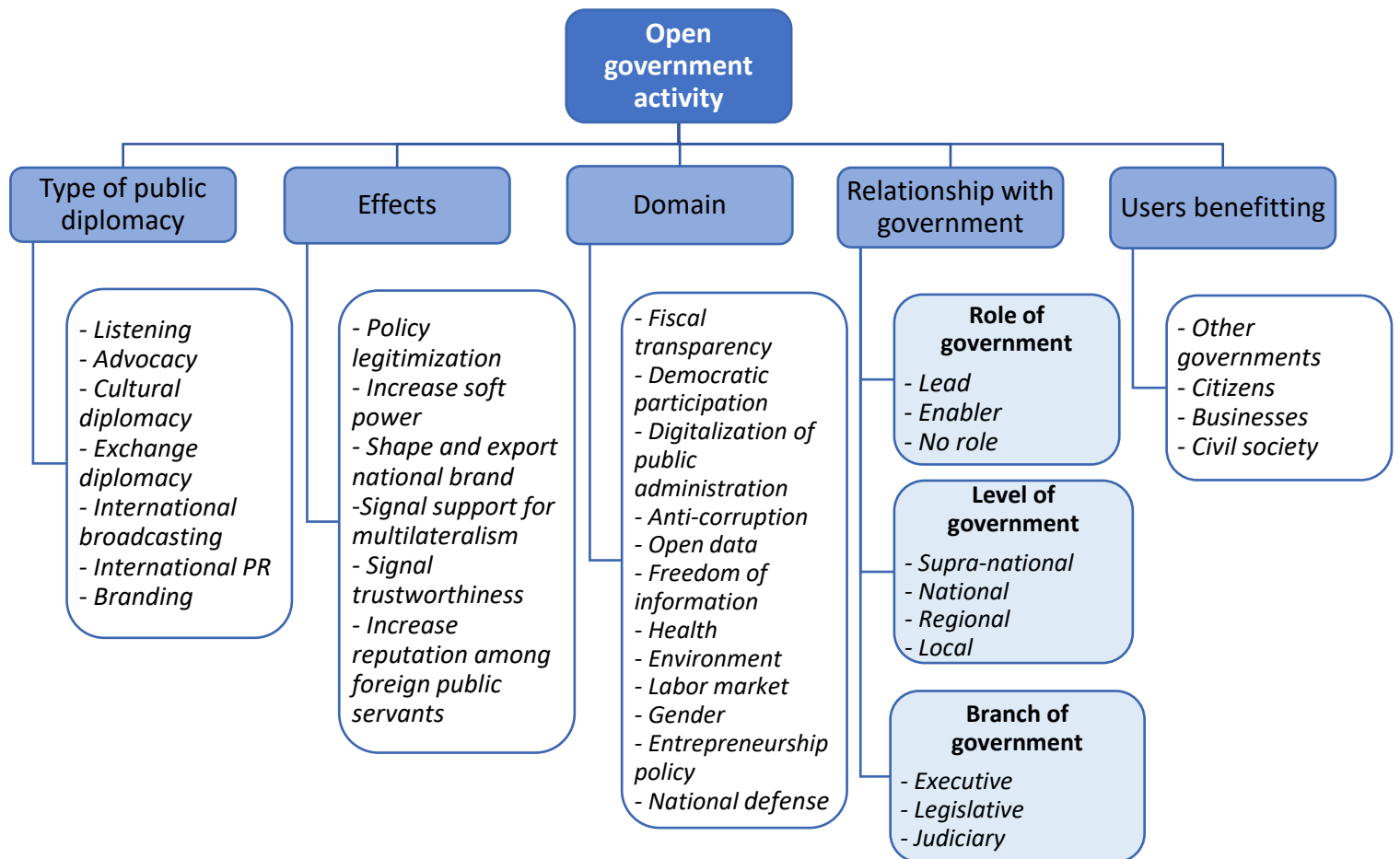


Figure 11 - Framework for the assessment of open government activities as tools of public diplomacy

### 3.4 Case study analysis

#### 3.4.1 *Canada and the Open Policy Model*

Canada is a popular choice for comparative studies on public diplomacy (Gilboa, 2008). Its reputation as “good citizen” of the global civil society comes from initiatives against global poverty, nuclear weapons, landmines, and generally in support for multilateral governance (Landry and Sangiambut, 2017). It is ranked n.8 in the Country Brand Index (FutureBrand, 2019), n.4 in the Good Country Index (Anholt, n.d.), and n.7 in the Soft Power 30 Ranking (McClory, 2019). Most interestingly, Canada is ranked n.2 for country reputation in the Best Countries index (U.S.News&World Report, n.d.). While its reputation is not the best for categories like adventure, cultural influence, or heritage, it scores extremely well in citizenship values, quality of life and transparent government and business practices. Canada has the reputation of a modern, inclusive, trustworthy country that values its citizens. However, it does not score well in the innovative and technological expertise categories, with only 48.7/100 and 44.1/100 points respectively.

The case study selected for Canada is an initiative started in 2009 by the Department of Foreign Affairs, Trade and Development (DFAITD), that developed an Open Policy Model which implements social network and media to collect policy insights and ideas from both inside and outside the department (OPSI, 2014). The Model has proven to be an effective tool for policy makers to develop better, smarter and cheaper policies, bridging opinions of civil society, public servants and academics from Canada and abroad.

By applying the previously developed framework, it is possible to assess the public diplomacy value of this OG activity (Figure 12). For start, the initiative can be employed as instrument of public diplomacy in at least three ways: advocacy, international broadcasting, and branding. The first is carried out through the promotion of the initiative among foreign publics, which already happens when policy discussions are held with partners from academia and civil society in other countries (OPSI, 2014a). International broadcasting happens when the initiative is published or discussed in reports of international organizations such as the OECD or the OGP. Branding is employed when the initiative is framed internationally as a key feature of the country’s identity.

Effects of this OG activity in public diplomacy would be: policy legitimization, as it strengthens the policy-making process; shape and export national brand, as it reinforces the image of the country as participatory and transparent, and exports it through international partners; signal trustworthiness, through opening up decision-making processes; and increase reputation among foreign public servants, by directly connects them to Canadian ones in a collaborative space.

The domain of the activity is democratic participation, as that is boosted through participatory policy-making processes. For what regards the relationship with the government, the activity is lead by the national government of Canada, specifically its executive branch. Finally, as it is open to members inside and outside the department, users benefitting are potentially all members of society.

Type of public diplomacy	Effect	Domain	Relationship with government	Users benefitting
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Advocacy</li> <li>- International broadcasting</li> <li>- Branding</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Policy legitimization</li> <li>- Shape and export national brand</li> <li>- Signal trustworthiness</li> <li>- Increase reputation among foreign public servants</li> </ul>	Democratic participation	<b>Role</b> Lead	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Other governments</li> <li>- Citizens</li> <li>- Businesses</li> <li>- Civil society</li> </ul>
			<b>Level</b> National	
			<b>Branch</b> Executive	

Figure 12 – Applied framework: Open Policy Model Canada

The main result of this case study is that Canada has in its hands an important instrument that support its public diplomacy efforts, with the potential to do much more. Canadian reputation is already well established as a trustworthy country that values national and international citizens, but it could benefit from being associated with more innovative ways of living public and private life. Moreover, the Open Policy Model’s domain – democratic participation – was voted second most influential public diplomacy area for OG activities as public diplomacy tools by the expert panel. Canada should therefore identify cases such as this initiative and fully integrate them in its public diplomacy strategy, promoting them through more well-planned public diplomacy initiatives.

### 3.4.2 South Korea and the Information Network Village Project

South Korea has an institutional take to public diplomacy, nationally coordinated by the Public Diplomacy and Cultural Affairs Bureau and regulated by the Public Diplomacy Act (Choi, 2019). The main focus of Korea’s public diplomacy activities is national image building, mostly achieved through the promotion of Korean culture. This strategy was implemented in the ’90s, when the so-called Korean Wave influenced the perception of South Korea in countries around all Asia (Choi, 2019). Since then, South Korea has kept promoting its image mostly through pop-culture, such as TV dramas and music (see the most recent success of the band BTS). South Korea is ranked n.20 in the Country Brand Index (FutureBrand, 2019), n.28 in the Good Country Index (Anholt, n.d.), and n.19 in the Soft Power 30 Ranking (McClory, 2019). For overall international reputation, South Korea is ranked n.20 in the Best Countries index (U.S.News&World Report, n.d.a). Being one of the most technologically advanced countries in the world, it is not surprising to notice top scores in categories

such as innovation, technology expertise, entrepreneurship, and progressiveness. However, its scores are low in areas connected to citizenship values.

The case study selected for South Korea is the Information Network Village (INVIL), launched in 2001 by the Korean government as a response to rural isolation due to lack of ICT infrastructure and technological literacy. INVIL aim is to reduce the digital divide between urban and rural areas, often corresponding to already socially excluded groups such as farmers and fishermen (Jung et al. 2014). Communities which take part in INVIL are provided with ICT infrastructure and training for all residents, ensuring them access to e-government services, and improving their income level by boosting local economy through e-commerce. The program has proven successful in economic and social terms, increasing productivity, business value and social capital.

The application of the OG activity as tools of public diplomacy framework to the INVIL project (Figure 13) highlights that it can pursue public diplomacy goals as international broadcasting and branding. Regarding the first, INVIL has been the subject of several case study analysis in academic papers, and won the first place for a UN public service award in 2011 (Chung, 2015), making it a widely reported case. Regarding the latter, the initiative’s success and popularity confirm South Korea’s brand of an innovation-driven country.

The public diplomacy effects of INVIL would be: to increase the country’s soft power, through strengthening its image of a technological literate population and with a robust ICT infrastructure; signal trustworthiness, by increasing access to e-government services for rural residents; and increase its reputation among foreign public servants, who are likely to be familiar with the activity as it is recognized as excellence standard. The domain of the activity is to increase democratic participation through access to ICT and e-government services. There is a close relationship with the national government, in its executive branch, which acts as lead. Finally, users benefitting from INVIL are mostly citizens and businesses of rural areas.

Type of public diplomacy	Effect	Domain	Relationship with government	Users benefitting
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- International broadcasting</li> <li>- Branding</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Increase soft power</li> <li>- Signal trustworthiness</li> <li>- Increase reputation among foreign public servants</li> </ul>	Democratic participation	<b>Role</b> Lead	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Citizens</li> <li>- Businesses</li> </ul>
			<b>Level</b> National	
			<b>Branch</b> Executive	

Figure 13 – Applied framework: INVIL Project South Korea

This right implementation of INVIL in South Korea's public diplomacy has the potential to greatly impact the country's reputation. The project achieved incredible recognition at the global scale, pushing forward an image of the country that is not necessarily latched to its most cultural aspects. It also proposed the image of a country that cares for the social inclusion of all its citizens and is willing to invest robustly in underdeveloped areas in order to level economic and democratic disparities. International public already know that South Korea is one of the most technologically advanced societies in the world, however, the country has been found struggling in its efforts to introduce the ways in which technology and innovation are at the service of citizenship in its public diplomacy. South Korea should leverage more on exactly this kind of initiatives, and the beginning of its term as lead co-chair of the OGP for 2020-21, to be recognized by the international community as a champion for digital citizenship.

## IV. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This research project has introduced a theoretical approach to the public diplomacy of open government activities. First, an assessment framework was developed to identify characteristics of open government activities as tool of public diplomacy (R1). The framework also included insights from experts in the OG field, who amply discussed the public diplomacy benefits of a successful integration of open government activities (R2). Finally, the framework was applied on a case study analysis of two successful OG activities implemented by two countries with very different public diplomacy strategies, international reputations, and foreign policy goals, thus allowing for the analysis of specific countries' implementation of OG activities in their own public diplomacy strategies (R3). The aim of this study was to identify a new research area in the public diplomacy dimension of open government, an idea that had yet to be systematically explored by either of these academic fields.

The connection between public diplomacy and open government has been found in the values that are carried by OG, like transparency, trustworthiness, democracy, multiculturalism. Countries that can be associated with these values are recognize to improve their reputation on the international stage. This, in turn, boosts their influence as international actors and increases their soft power. However, the public diplomacy value of OG needs to be recognized by governments and international actors if they want to reap the benefits of it. There is a strong need for public diplomacy strategies that fully incorporate OG activities in more deliberative ways. This point appears clear from the case study analysis of the initiatives implemented in Canada and South Korea. Moreover, open government already has a public diplomacy value, especially when institutionalized in internal organizations such as the OPG, regardless of governments' awareness. South Korea's project has won awards and is observed by public administrators around the world; Canada's model has allowed foreign citizens to contribute to its policy-making process. International public opinion is shaped by these actions, governments have the opportunity to use this to their advantage.

On the other hand, some international actors seem to be more than aware of the reputational benefits of open government. Results from the Delphi study confirmed that practitioners in the field of OG are already weary of activities adopted only for their "open washing" effects. It remains unclear, and maybe still early to know, how serious this problem might be for the OG community. One thing is for certain: scholars, practitioners, commentators, public administrators, and the international community must not confuse shallow practices of openness that self-serve central authority with real, transparent, collaborative, and cooperative practices that centre radical democratic citizenship. This is the only way to keep open government's ideals from becoming yet another failed vision of a more participatory, fair and inclusive society. Luckily, the critical literature review on OG



research showed a push in the industry not only for mere implementation of OG activities, but also for the systematic evaluation of their effectiveness.

Changes in ICTs are affecting public administrations around the world, with governments integrating internet-based features at all levels of public service. Big innovations in the public sector are already building what is referred to as “Government 3.0” (Ojo and Millard, 2017), which is characterized by the adoption of open and big data, Internet-of-Things, and blockchains technology as drivers of public services’ management and delivery. Simultaneously, public diplomacy has also changed dramatically in the past few decades, with revolutions in ICTs introducing new forms of international publics, new arenas to exercise influence, and new declinations of international power, in a world that has never been more responsive to public policy trends and opinions. These changes need to be assessed comprehensively by public diplomacy practitioners, as they are shaping not only what governments will look like in the very near future, but how they will want to be seen by the international community.

In conclusion, this study introduced a new area of research for both scholars of public diplomacy and open government. The scope of the findings is of course to be limited to an introductory idea, but it should be of interest for anyone who believes there is always a value researching new phenomena, and discover new connections. Future research should certainly have a more empirically-based approach in order to evaluate the actual impact of OG activities in their public diplomacy sense, especially when successfully integrated in wider image-building or relationship-building strategies. There is, for example, room for discussion on what are the gains, in economic, political, influential, and social terms, of practicing public diplomacy with OG activities. Are these gains measurable? Can they be enforced by OG advocates to influence their own government in opening up their administrations? How dependent are these gains on previous international reputation, domain of the OG activity implemented, users benefitting etc.? These issues are not completely new for scholars of both open government and public diplomacy as they have long struggled with trying to quantify impacts of their own activities’ implementation. Practitioners and scholars can therefore come together to address these new challenges, just as governments, citizens and civil society do in open government forums. The solution is once again to build on each other’s expertise and knowledge to create a better, more informed, more inclusive, more participatory international community.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adams, G. & Schvaneveldt, J. (1991). *Understanding Research Methods*. New York: Longman.
- Anholt (n.d.). Case Study Archive. The Good Country Index. Retrieved November, 25, 2020, from <https://www.goodcountry.org/index/results>
- Armstrong, M.C. (2009). Social Media as Public Diplomacy. *Perspectives*, 1(2).
- Åström, J., Karlsson, M., Linde, J., & Pirannejad, A. (2012). Understanding the rise of e-participation in non-democracies: Domestic and international factors. *Government Information Quarterly*, 29(2), 142-150. <https://10.1016/j.giq.2011.09.008>
- Bátora, J. (2006). Public diplomacy between home and abroad: Norway and Canada. *The Hague Journal of Diplomacy*, 1(1), 53-80.
- Bekkers, V. & Hornsborg, V. (Eds.). (2005). *The information ecology of E-Government: E-Government as Institutional and Technological Innovation in public administration*. Amsterdam: IOS Press.
- Bjola, C., Cassidy, J., & Manor, I. (2019). Public Diplomacy in the Digital Age. *The Hague Journal of Diplomacy*, 14(1-2), 83–101 <https://doi.org/10.1163/1871191X-14011032>
- Chatwin, M., & Arku, G. (2017). Beyond Ambiguity: Conceptualizing Open Government through a Human Systems Framework. *eJournal of eDemocracy and Open Government*, 9(1) 52-78.
- Choi, K.J. (2019). *The Republic Of Korea's Public Diplomacy Strategy: History And Current Status*. Los Angeles, CA: Figueroa Press.
- Chun, S.A., Shulman, S., Sandoval, R., S., & Hovy, E. (2010). Government 2.0: Making connections between citizens, data and government. *Information Polity*, 15(1/2), 1-9. <https://10.3233/IP-2010-0205>
- Chung, C. (2015). The Introduction of e-Government in Korea: Development Journey, Outcomes and Future. *Gestion et management public*, 3(4), 107-122. <https://doi.org/10.3917/gmp.034.0107>
- Criado, J.I., Ruvalcaba-Gómez, E.A., & Valenzuela-Mendoza, R. (2018). Revisiting the Open Government Phenomenon. A Meta-Analysis of the International Literature. *eJournal of eDemocracy and Open Government*, 10(1), 50-81. <https://doi.org/10.29379/jedem.v10i1.454>
- Cross, H.L. (1953). *The people's right to know: Legal access to public records and proceeding*. Morningside Heights, NY: Columbia University Press
- Cull, N.J. (2008). Public Diplomacy: Taxonomies and Histories. *The American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 616(1), 31-54. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716207311952>
- Cull, N.J. (Ed.). (2009). *Public Diplomacy: Lessons from the Past*. Los Angeles, CA: Figueroa Press.
- Dahl, R.A. (1971). *Polyarchy; Participation And Opposition*. New Haven: Yale University Press.
- Dale, H.C. (2009, December 8). *Public Diplomacy 2.0: Where the U.S. Government Meets "New Media"*. The Heritage Foundation. <https://www.heritage.org/global-politics/report/public-diplomacy-20-where-the-us-government-meets-new-media>
- Della Porta, D. (2013). *Can Democracy Be Saved? Participation, Deliberation And Social Movements*. Malden, Cambridge: Polity Press.

- Denzin, N.K. (Eds.). (1978). *The research act: A theoretical introduction to sociological methods*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- E. Potter. (2002). Canada and the New Public Diplomacy. *International Journal*, 58(1), 43-64. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/40203812>
- European Commission. (2016). *Analysis of the Value of New Generation of eGovernment Services and how Can the Public Sector Become an Agent of Innovation through ICT*. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities. <https://10.2759/343572>
- Flick, U. (2003). Triangulation. In: Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Qualitative Research* (pp. 761-791). London: Methuen.
- FutureBrand. (2019). *FutureBrand Country Index*. (Report). <https://www.futurebrand.com/uploads/FCI/FutureBrand-Country-Index-2019.pdf>
- Geekiyange, D., Fernando, T., & Keraminiyage, K. (2020). Assessing the state of the art in community engagement for participatory decision-making in disaster risk-sensitive urban development. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction*, 51. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijdrr.2020.101847>
- Gifford, M. (1985). Managing public diplomacy. *Washington Quarterly*, 8(3), 199-213. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01636608509450301>
- Gilboa, E. (2001). Diplomacy in the media age: Three models of uses and Effects. *Diplomacy and Statecraft*, 12(2), 1-28. <https://10.1080/09592290108406201>
- Gilboa, E. (2008). Searching for a Theory of Public Diplomacy. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 616(1), 55-77. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716207312142>
- Gil-Garcia, J.R., Dawes, S.S., & Pardo, T.A. (2017). Digital government and public management research: finding the crossroads. *Public Management Review*, 20(5), 633-646. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14719037.2017.1327181>
- Grunig, J.E. (1993). Public relations and international affairs. *Journal of International Affairs*, 47(1), 139-164.
- Gudjonsson, H. (2015). Nation Branding. *Place branding*, 1(3): 283-298. <https://10.1057/palgrave.pb.5990029>
- Helmets, H. (2016). Public Diplomacy in Early Modern Europe. *Media History*, 22(3-4), 401-420. <https://10.1080/13688804.2016.1174570>
- Henrikson, A.K. (2005). Niche Diplomacy in the World Public Arena: the Global 'Corners' of Canada and Norway. In: Melissen J. (Ed.), *The New Public Diplomacy. Studies in Diplomacy and International Relations* (pp. 67-87). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hoffman, D. (2002, March 1). *Beyond Public Diplomacy*. Foreign Affairs. <https://www.foreignaffairs.com/articles/middle-east/2002-03-01/beyond-public-diplomacy>
- Howard, H.F. (1993). *Global communication and international relations*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Howlett, M. & Ramesh, M. (1995). Policy Cycles and Policy Subsystems. *Canadian Journal of Political Science*, 29(1), 169-170. <https://10.1017/S0008423900007423>

- Hsu, C.C. & Sandford, B.A. (2007). The Delphi Technique: Making Sense of Consensus. *Practical Assessment*, 12(10), 1-8. <https://doi.org/10.7275/pdz9-th90>
- Huang, H., Liao, C.Z., Liao, H., & Chen, D. (2020). Resisting by workarounds: Unravelling the barriers of implementing open government data policy. *Government Information Quarterly*, 37(4). <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.giq.2020.101495>
- Jung, M., Park, S., & Lee, J. (2014). Information Network Villages A Community-Focused Digital Divide Reduction Policy In Rural Korea. *Australian Journal Of Telecommunications And The Digital Economy*, 2(1). <https://10.7790/ajtde.v2n1.21>
- Kalampokis, E., Tambouris, E., & Tarabanis, K. (2011). Open Government Data: A Stage Model for Electronic Government. In M. Janssen, H. Scholl, M. Wimmer & Y.-h. Tan (Eds.), (Vol. 6846, pp.235-246). Springer Berlin: Heidelberg.
- Kalathil, S. & Boas, T. (2003). *Open networks, closed regimes: The impact of the internet on authoritarian rule*. Washington, D.C.:Carnegie Endowment for International Peace.
- Khatib, L., Dutton, W., & Thelwall, M. (2012). Public Diplomacy 2.0: A Case Study of the US Digital Outreach Team. *Middle East Journal*, 66(3), 453-472. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/23256656>
- Landry, J. & Sangiambut, S. (2017, November 2). *Open government: Canada's new soft power?* Policy Options. <https://policyoptions.irpp.org/fr/magazines/novembre-2017/open-government-canadas-new-soft-power/>
- Lathrop, D. & Ruma, L. (Eds.). (2010). *Open government: Collaboration, transparency, and participation in practice*. Sebastopol, CA: O'Reilly.
- Lee, G. & Kwak, Y.H. (2012). An Open Government Maturity Model for social media-based public engagement. *Government Information Quarterly*, 29(4), 492-503. <https://10.1016/j.giq.2012.06.001>
- Leonard, M. (2002). *Public Diplomacy*. London: Foreign Policy Centre.
- McClory, J. (2019). The Soft Power 30 A Global Ranking of Soft Power. Portland Communications. <https://softpower30.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/10/The-Soft-Power-30-Report-2019-1.pdf>
- McDermott, P. (2010). Building open government. *Government Information Quarterly*, 27(4), 401-413. <https://10.1016/j.giq.2010.07.002>
- Meijer, A.J., Curtin, D., & Hillebrandt, M. (2012). Open government: Connecting vision and voice. *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 78(1), 10-29. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0020852311429533>
- Melissen, J. (2005). The New Public Diplomacy: Between Theory and Practice. In: Melissen J. (Ed.), *The New Public Diplomacy. Studies in Diplomacy and International Relations* (pp. 3-27). London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Morris, T. & Wood, S. (1991). Testing the survey method: continuity and change in British industrial relations. *Work Employment and Society*, 5(2), 259-82. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0950017091005002007>
- Napoli, J.J., & Fejeran, J. (2004). Of two minds: US public diplomacy and the Middle East. *Global Media Journal*, 3(5).

- Noveck, B.S. (2009). *Wiki Government: How Technology Can make Government Better, Democracy Stronger, and Citizens More Powerful*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Nye, J.S. (1990). *Bound to lead: The changing nature of American power*. New York: Basic Books.
- Nye, J.S. (2008). Public Diplomacy and Soft Power. *The American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 616(1), 94-109. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0002716207311699>
- O'Connor, K., Janenova, S., & Knox, C. (2019). Open Government in Authoritarian Regimes. *International Review of Public Policy*, 1(1), 65-82. <https://doi.org/10.4000/irpp.325>
- O'Reilly, T. (2011). Government as a Platform. *Innovations Technology Governance Globalization* 6(1), 13-40. [https://doi.org/10.1162/INOV\\_a\\_00056](https://doi.org/10.1162/INOV_a_00056)
- OECD. (2016). *Open Government: The Global Context and the Way Forward*. Paris: OECD Publishing. <https://doi.org/10.1787/9789264268104-en>.
- Ojo, A. & Millard, J. (Eds.). (2015). *Government 3.0 – Next Generation Government Technology Infrastructure and Services Roadmaps, Enabling Technologies & Challenges*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer Nature.
- Olins, W. (2002). Branding the nation — The historical context. *Journal of Brand Management*, 9(4-5), 241–248. <https://doi.org/10.1057/palgrave.bm.2540075>
- Open Government Partnership (n.d.). Canada. Retrieved November, 11, 2020, from <https://www.opengovpartnership.org/members/canada/>
- Open Government Partnership (n.d.a). South Korea. Retrieved November, 11, 2020, from <https://www.opengovpartnership.org/members/south-korea/>
- OPSI. (2014). *Open Policy Development (ODP)*. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. [https://oecd-opsi.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/Open-Policy-Development\\_Italy\\_2009.pdf](https://oecd-opsi.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/Open-Policy-Development_Italy_2009.pdf)
- OPSI. (2016). Information Network Village (INVIL) project. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. [https://oecd-opsi.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/Information-Network-Village\\_Korea\\_2001.pdf](https://oecd-opsi.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/07/Information-Network-Village_Korea_2001.pdf)
- OPSI. (n.d.). *Case Study Archive*. Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development. Retrieved November, 11, 2020, from <https://oecd-opsi.org/case-study-archive/>
- Persson, T., Roland, G., & Tabellini, G. (1997). Separation of Powers and Political Accountability. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 112(4), 1163–1202, <https://doi.org/10.1162/003355300555457>
- Puron-Cid, G. (2014). Factors for a successful adoption of budgetary transparency innovations: A questionnaire report of an open government initiative in Mexico. *Government Information Quarterly*, 31(1), 49–62. <https://10.1016/j.giq.2014.01.007>
- Riggs, W. (1983). The Delphi technique: An experimental evaluation. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, 23(1), 89-94.
- Robertson, J. (2018). Organizational culture and public diplomacy in the digital sphere: The case of South Korea. *Special Issue: The Pacific islands in the twenty-first century*, 5(3), 672-682. <https://doi.org/10.1002/app5.256>

- Robson, C. (Ed.). (2002). *Real World Research*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Ruvalcaba-Gomez, E.A., Criado, J.I., & Gil-Garcia, J.R. (2018). Discussing open government as a concept: a comparison between the perceptions of public managers and current academic debate. *Proceedings of the 19th Annual International Conference on Digital Government Research: Governance in the Data Age*, 1, 71. <https://10.1145/3209281.3209320>
- Saunders, M.N.K., Thornhill, A., & Lewis, P. (Eds.). (2009). *Research Methods for Business Students*. London: Pearson.
- Schnell, S. & Jo, S. (2019). Which Countries Have More Open Governments? Assessing Structural Determinants of Openness. *American Review of Public Administration*, 49(8), 944-956. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0275074019854445>
- Signitzer, B. & Coombs, T. (1992). Public relations and public diplomacy: Conceptual divergence. *Public Relations Review*, 18(2), 137-47. [https://10.1016/0363-8111\(92\)90005-J](https://10.1016/0363-8111(92)90005-J)
- Smyth, R. (2001). Mapping US public diplomacy in the 21st century. *Australian Journal of International Affairs*, 55(3), 421-444. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10357710120095252>
- Stevenson, E.V. (2010). *Some initial methodological considerations in the development and design of Delphi Surveys*. [Project Report]. St. Andrews: Supergen XIV.
- Szondi, G. (2008). (Rep.). Clingendael Institute. Retrieved December 5, 2020, from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/resrep05374>
- Tallan, D. (2012, April 30). Three Dimensions of Open Government. *Govloop*. <http://www.govloop.com/profiles/blogs/three-dimensions-of-open-government>
- Tashakkori, A. & Teddlie, C. (Eds.). (2003). *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioural Research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Tucker, R.W. & Hendrickson, D.C. (2004, November 1). *The sources of American legitimacy*. Foreign Affairs. <https://www.foreignaffairs.com/articles/united-states/2004-11-01/sources-american-legitimacy>
- U.S. News & World Report. (n.d.). Canada. Retrieved November, 25, 2020, from <https://www.usnews.com/news/best-countries/canada>
- U.S. News & World Report. (n.d.a). Canada. Retrieved November, 25, 2020, from <https://www.usnews.com/news/best-countries/south-korea>
- van Ham, P. (2002). Branding Territory: Inside the Wonderful Worlds of PR and IR Theory. *Millennium*, 31(2), 249-269. <https://doi.org/10.1177/03058298020310020101>
- Van Long, T., Trieu Hoa, N., & Thi Anh, N. (2017). E-government without E-democracy in the case of Vietnam: Transparency has been a sham?. *Tidsskriftet Arkiv*, 8(1). <https://doi.org/10.7577/ta.1961>
- Vetrò, A., Canova, L., Torchiano, M., Orozco Minotas, C., Iemma, R., & Morando, F. (2016). Open data quality measurement framework: Definition and application to Open Government Data. *Government Information Quarterly*, 33, 325-337 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.giq.2016.02.001>
- Wang, J. (2006). Managing national reputation and international relations in the global era: Public diplomacy revisited. *Public Relations Review*, 32, 91-96. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pubrev.2005.12.001>

White House. (2009, January 21). *Transparency and Open Government: Memorandum for the Heads of Executive Departments and Agencies*. [Memorandum]

<https://obamawhitehouse.archives.gov/the-press-office/transparency-and-open-government>

Wirtz, B.W. & Birkmeyer, S. (2015). Open Government: Origin, Development, and Conceptual Perspectives. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 38(5), 381-396.

<https://doi.org/10.1080/01900692.2014.942735>

WJP (n.d.). *Open Government Around the World*. Retrieved November, 11, 2020, from

<https://worldjusticeproject.org/open-government-around-world>

Yin, R.K. (Eds.). (2003). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. London: Sage.

# APPENDIXES

## APPENDIX 1 – DELPHI STUDY

### 1.1 PARTICIPANTS INFORMATION

<i>N.</i>	<i>Job title</i>	<i>Organization type</i>	<i>Geographical area</i>	<i>First contacted via</i>
1	Senior Regional Coordinator	International Organization	Asia-Pacific	E-mail
2	Professor and lecturer	Academia	Europe (Switzerland)	E-mail
3	Senior Manager	Government Office	North America (Canada)	LinkedIn
4	Policy Analyst	Intergovernmental Economic Organization	Multi-continent	LinkedIn
5	Executive Director	International Non-Governmental Organization	Europe (Italy)	LinkedIn
6	Project Manager	Supra-National Government Body	Europe (European Union)	E-mail
7	Director and Head of Policy	Non-Profit Civic Start-up	Europe (Italy)	LinkedIn
8	Head of Customer Experience	Collaborative Public Notice Platform	North America (USA)	LinkedIn
9	Business Transformation Consultant	Multinational Technology and Consulting Company	North America (Canada)	LinkedIn
10	Service Designer	Government Office	South America (Argentina)	Twitter
11	Deputy Director	Government Division	Asia-Pacific (Republic of Korea)	E-mail

### 1.2 ROUND 1 QUESTIONNAIRE

#### Note for Participants:

Dear XXXXX,

Thank you for agreeing to partake in a survey exercise for this research project. This survey is part of a Delphi study designed to collect the opinions of Open Government (OG) 's experts on the value of OG initiatives as instrument of public diplomacy.

Your contribution will be completely confidential and you will remain anonymous to other participants and throughout the entire study. Your answers will be used only for the purpose of this study as part of a Masters thesis' research project.

The following survey is Round 1 of 3 rounds of a Delphi study. Each round will not take more than 10 minutes of your time and surveys will be sent at two weeks intervals. I kindly ask you to answer each round within 10 days of receiving the survey.

The structure of the Delphi study is the following:



- Round 1: You will be asked to answer 6 questions to gauge your general opinion on OG and public diplomacy. **You will find the questions for Round 1 below.**
- Round 2: Building on the themes and answers provided during Round 1, a new survey will be designed with more specific question.
- Round 3: After reviewing the answers of Round 2, the questions where consensus has not been reached will be re-asked to the participants, but this time you will be informed of the average reply of other experts.

At no point during the study you will be asked to provide personal information and your identity will remain anonymous at all times, you are invited to share your opinion freely.

Thank you again for supporting this thesis research with your time and expertise.

Sincerely,  
Luisa Della Pietra

### Questionnaire:

- 1) In your opinion, what is the public diplomacy value of OG initiatives?
- 2) In your opinion, what are the policy areas where implementing OG initiatives can affect the international reputation of a country the most?
- 3) Can you think of any examples of countries/administrations adopting OG initiatives also to improve their international reputation? If you can, please list them.
- 4) Countries that are more committed to OG have generally a good reputation.  
 Strongly Disagree     Disagree     Neither Agree or Disagree     Agree     Strongly Agree
- 5) The OG strategy of Canada is consistent with its international reputation.  
 Strongly Disagree     Disagree     Neither Agree or Disagree     Agree     Strongly Agree
- 6) The OG strategy of South Korea is consistent with its international reputation.  
 Strongly Disagree     Disagree     Neither Agree or Disagree     Agree     Strongly Agree

### 1.3 ROUND 1 RESULTS AND THEMES

*Answers by different participants that referred to the same issues are grouped together.*

<i>Question and n.</i>	<i>Theme/Result</i>
1.1	Signal of stability
1.2	Signal of trustworthiness
1.3	Signal of economic development
1.4	Favor foreign direct investment
1.5	The OGP creates competition therefore public sector is pushed by government in order to not be at the bottom of international ranking

1.6	Civil servants of each side makes their own opinion on other countries reputation in the contest of OG and public servants tend to agree more with countries they perceive more open
1.7	Greater social license (recognition) for policies
1.8	Attracting private investment
1.9	National branding
1.10	Increase of soft power by making more virtuous country be emulated
2.1	Anti-corruption
2.2	Fiscal Transparency
2.3	Digitalization of public administration
2.4	Freedom of information
2.5	Open data
2.6	Democracy
2.7	Entrepreneurship policy
2.8	Labor market
2.9	Environment
2.10	National defense
2.11	Gender
2.12	Health
2.13	Depends on the of the civil society and public opinion
3.1	USA
3.2	Italy
3.3	Canada
3.4	Chile
3.5	Taiwan
3.6	Singapore
3.7	France
3.8	Georgia
3.9	South Korea
3.10	“Open washing” joining the OGP is an unfortunate common practice
4.1	40% Strongly Agree ; 50% Agree ; 10% Strongly Disagree
4.2	50% Strongly Agree ; 33,3% Agree ; 16,7% Strongly Disagree
4.3	12,5% Strongly Agree ; 62,5% Agree ; 12,5% Disagree ; 12,5% Strongly Disagree

## 1.4 ROUND 2 QUESTIONNAIRE

- 1) Being committed to OG initiatives can attract foreign direct investment.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 2) Being committed to OG initiatives can legitimize policies and support policy continuity.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 3) Being committed to OG activities increases a country's soft power.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 4) Countries can implement OG activities in order to shape and export their "national brand".
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 5) OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal the political stability of a country.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 6) OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal a country's support for multilateralism.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 7) OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal a country's economic development.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 8) OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal a country's trustworthiness.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 9) The Open Government Partnership (OGP) promotes OG practices through international competition.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 10) Countries where national or local governments engage in OG activities build stronger relationships with and have better reputation among public servants of other countries.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 11) Please list the following policy areas according to what are, in your opinion, the issues more likely to influence reputation when addressed by OG initiatives (1 is most influential, 12 is least influential)
- Anti-corruption
  - Democratic participation
  - Digitalization of public administration
  - Entrepreneurship policy
  - Environment
  - Fiscal transparency
  - Freedom of information
  - Gender
  - Health
  - Labor market
  - National defense

- Open data
- 12) The effect that implementing OG initiatives in specific policy areas has on reputation depends on "trends" in public opinion and public policy.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 13) The practice of "open washing" (implementing initiatives to give the impression of openness without actually achieving tangible results that increase transparency, accountability or collaboration) is becoming a problem in the industry.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree
- 14) It is easier for governments to have their reputation negatively impacted by a failure to follow through with OG objectives than to have it improved by just implementing OG activities.
- Strongly Disagree  Disagree  Neither Agree or Disagree  Agree  Strongly Agree

## 1.5 ROUND 2 RESULTS

	<i>Question/Statement</i>	<i>Mode of consensus</i>	<i>Intensity of consensus</i>	<i>General Positive/Negative?*</i>	<i>Pursue to round 3</i>
1	Being committed to OG initiatives can attract foreign direct investment.	Agree	55,6%	Positive 55,6% Neutral 44,4%	Yes
2	Being committed to OG initiatives can legitimize policies and support policy continuity.	Strongly Agree	66,7%	Positive 88,9%	No
3	Being committed to OG activities increases a country's soft power.	Agree	55,6%	Positive 77,8%	No
4	Countries can implement OG activities in order to shape and export their "national brand".	Agree	66,7%	Positive 88,9%	No
5	OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal the political stability of a country.	Neither Agree nor disagree	44,4%	Positive 55,5% Neutral 44,5%	Yes
6	OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal a country's support for multilateralism.	Agree	44,4%	Positive 66,6% Neutral 33,3%	Yes
7	OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal a country's economic development.	Neither agree or disagree	55,6%	Neutral 55,6% Positive 11,1% Negative 33,3%	Yes
8	OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal a country's trustworthiness.	Agree	77,8%	Positive 77,8%	No

9	The Open Government Partnership (OGP) promotes OG practices through international competition.	Agree	55,6%	Positive 55,6% Negative 33,3%	Yes
10	Countries where national or local governments engage in OG activities build stronger relationships with and have better reputation among public servants of other countries.	Strongly Agree	55,6%	Positive 88,9%	No
11	Please list the following policy areas according to what are, in your opinion, the issues more likely to influence reputation when addressed by OG initiatives (1 is most influential, 12 is least influential)	1.Fiscal transparency 2.Democratic participation 3.Digitalization of public administration 4.Anti-corruption 5.Open data 6.Freedom of information 7.Helath 8.Environment 9.Labor market 10.Gender 11.Entrepreneurship policy 12.National defense			No
12	The effect that implementing OG initiatives in specific policy areas has on reputation depends on "trends" in public opinion and public policy.	Agree	66,7%	Positive 100%	No
13	The practice of "open washing" (implementing initiatives to give the impression of openness without actually achieving tangible results that increase transparency, accountability or collaboration) is becoming a problem in the industry.	Agree Strongly Agree	33,3% each	Positive 66,6%	Yes
14	It is easier for governments to have their reputation negatively impacted by a failure to follow through with OG objectives than to have it improved by just implementing OG activities.	Agree	44,4%	Positive 44,4% Negative 33,3%	Yes

\*Positive answers include Agree and Strongly Agree selections. Negative answers include Disagree and Strongly Disagree selections.

## 1.6 ROUND 3 QUESTIONNAIRE

- 1) Being committed to OG initiatives can attract foreign direct investment.  
**Note:** In the previous round, 55,6% of respondents agreed with the statement  
 Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neither Agree or Disagree    Agree    Strongly Agree
- 2) OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal the political stability of a country.  
**Note:** In the previous round, 33,3% of respondents agreed with the statement  
 Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neither Agree or Disagree    Agree    Strongly Agree
- 3) OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal a country's support for multilateralism.  
**Note:** In the previous round, 66,6% of respondents agreed with the statement  
 Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neither Agree or Disagree    Agree    Strongly Agree
- 4) OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal a country's economic development.  
**Note:** In the previous round, 33,3% of respondents disagreed with the statement  
 Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neither Agree or Disagree    Agree    Strongly Agree
- 5) The Open Government Partnership (OGP) promotes OG practices through international competition.  
**Note:** In the previous round, 55,6% of respondents agreed with the statement  
 Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neither Agree or Disagree    Agree    Strongly Agree
- 6) The practice of "open washing" (implementing initiatives to give the impression of openness without actually achieving tangible results that increase transparency, accountability or collaboration) is becoming a problem in the industry.  
**Note:** In the previous round, 66,6% of respondents agreed with the statement  
 Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neither Agree or Disagree    Agree    Strongly Agree
- 7) It is easier for governments to have their reputation negatively impacted by a failure to follow through with OG objectives than to have it improved by just implementing OG activities.  
**Note:** In the previous round, 44,4% of respondents agreed with the statement  
 Strongly Disagree    Disagree    Neither Agree or Disagree    Agree    Strongly Agree

## 1.7 ROUND 3 RESULTS

	<i>Question/Statement</i>	<i>Mode of consensus</i>	<i>Intensity of consensus</i>	<i>Consensus achieved?***</i>
1	Being committed to OG initiatives can attract foreign direct investment.	Agree	66,7%	No
2	OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal the political stability of a country.	Disagree	55,6%	No
3	OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal a country's support for multilateralism.	Agree	77,8%	Yes

4	OG activities have public diplomacy value because they signal a country's economic development.	Disagree	77,8%	Yes
5	The Open Government Partnership (OGP) promotes OG practices through international competition.	Agree	55,6%	No
6	The practice of "openwashing" (implementing initiatives to give the impression of openness without actually achieving tangible results that increase transparency, accountability or collaboration) is becoming a problem in the industry.	Agree	77,8%	Yes
7	It is easier for governments to have their reputation negatively impacted by a failure to follow through with OG objectives than to have it improved by just implementing OG initiatives	Disagree	55,6%	No

\*\*Consensus is calculate at greater than or equal to 70% ( $\geq 70\%$ ).

## APPENDIX 2 – CASE STUDY

### 2.1 LIST OF OPEN GOVERNMENT INDEXES AND CRITERIA

Data and indexes older than 2017 were not shortlisted for this decision.

- World Justice Project (WJP) Open Government Index
- Open Government Partnership (OGP) Country Profile
- Open Data Barometer (\*)
- OECD OURdata Index (\*)

\* These indexes focus on open government data, therefore some open government activities might not be included. However, open government data is a substantial part of open government, which is harder to evaluate and rank at the aggregate level. These indexes are included for their high reliability and influence.

### 2.2 LIST OF INTERNATIONAL IMAGE INDEXES AND CRITERIA

Data and indexes older than 2017 were not shortlisted for this decision.

- U.S. News & World Report - Best Countries
- FutureBrand - Country Brand Index
- Portland Communications - Soft Power 30
- Anholt - Good Country Index

### 2.3 CANADA AND SOUTH KOREA RANKINGS FOR OPEN GOVERNMENT

Positions are reported on last available data as of December 1<sup>st</sup> 2020.

	Canada	South Korea
WJP Open Government Index	7	10
OGP Country Profile	Implementing 10 commitments	Implementing 13 commitments
Open Data Barometer	1	5
OECD OURdata Index	5	1

**2.4 CANADA AND SOUTH KOREA RAKINGS FOR INTERNATIONAL IMAGE**

Positions are reported on last available data as of December 1st 2020.

	<i>Canada</i>	<i>South Korea</i>
<i>Best Countries</i>	2	20
<i>Country Brand Index</i>	8	20
<i>Soft Power 30</i>	7	19
<i>Good Country Index</i>	4	28